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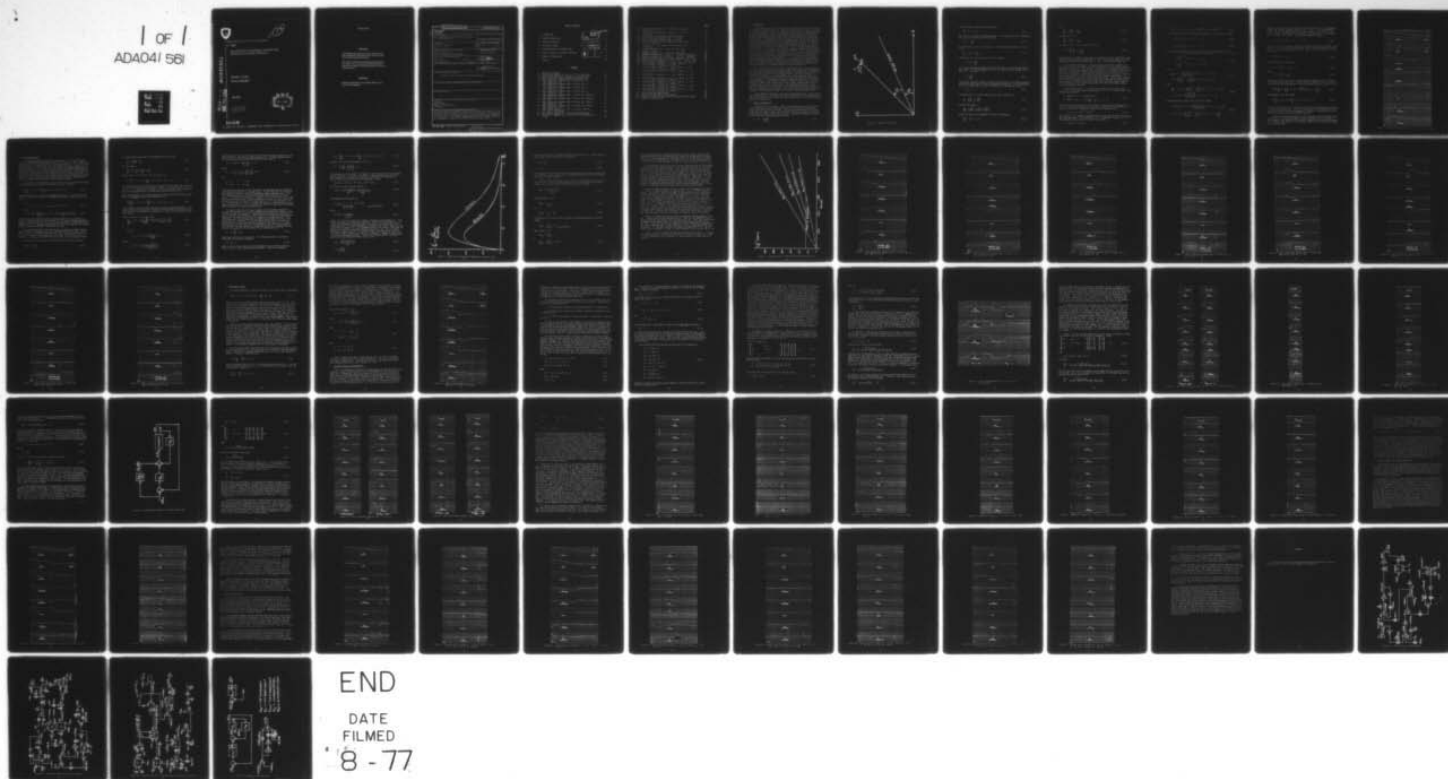
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Research and Development Technical Report

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AN APPROACH GUIDANCE SYSTEM FOR  
REMOTELY-PILOTED VEHICLES

Norman K. Shupe  
Avionics Laboratory

July 1977

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## TABLE OF CONTENTS

1. INTRODUCTION	
2. GUIDANCE FORMULATION	
3. SYSTEM GAIN CONTROL	
4. PATH ANGLE CONTROL	
5. AIRFRAME/AUTOPILOT REPRESENTATION	
6. COUPLED GUIDANCE AND CONTROL FUNCTIONS	
7. SUMMARY OF CONCLUSIONS	
APPENDIX	

	Page
NTIS	1
DDC	1
UNANNOUNCED	1
JUSTIFICATION	8
BY	24
DISTRIBUTION/AVAILABILITY CODES	25
DISC	49
ALPHA	52
Beta	62

## FIGURES

1. Approach coordinates	2
2. Ideal system response ( $n = 5$ , $\gamma_F = 4^\circ$ , $R = -85$ ft/sec)	7
3. Idealized altitude error response to a vertical gust	12
4. Spatial period of normal acceleration guidance law	15
5. Ideal system gust response ( $\Delta W_G = 5$ ft/sec, $R_m = 0$ , $R_D = 3000$ ft, $n = 15$ )	16
6. Ideal system gust response ( $\Delta W_G = 5$ ft/sec, $R_m = 0$ , $R_D = 2250$ ft, $n = 15$ )	17
7. Ideal system gust response ( $\Delta W_G = 5$ ft/sec, $R_m = 0$ , $R_D = 1500$ ft, $n = 15$ )	18
8. Ideal system gust response ( $\Delta W_G = 5$ ft/sec, $R_m = 0$ , $R_D = 750$ ft, $n = 15$ )	19
9. Ideal system gust response ( $\Delta W_G = 5$ ft/sec, $R_m = 3000$ ft, $R_D = 2250$ ft, $n = 15$ )	20
10. Ideal system gust response ( $\Delta W_G = 5$ ft/sec, $R_m = 3000$ ft, $n = 15$ )	21
11. Ideal system gust response ( $\Delta W_G = 5$ ft/sec, $R_m = 1000$ ft, $R_D = 1000$ ft, $n = 15$ )	22
12. Ideal system gust response ( $\Delta W_G = 5$ ft/sec, $R_m = 1000$ ft, $R_D = 600$ ft, $n = 15$ )	23
13. Ideal system response ( $\gamma_L = 8^\circ$ , $\gamma_F = 4^\circ$ , $R_m = 1000$ ft, $n = 15$ , $R = -85$ ft/sec)	26
14. Short period response ( $\Delta U = 0$ ) to a step elevation input	31
15. Short period response ( $K_a = -0.007$ ) to a step command input ( $\Delta a_c$ )	33

	<u>Page</u>
16. Short period response ( $K_a = -0.007$ ) to a $\Delta a_c$ step with $R_I = 0$	34
17. Short period response ( $K_a = -0.007$ , $K_\theta = -0.35$ ) to a $\Delta a_c$ step	35
18. Acceleration autopilot with feed forward path	37
19. Short period gust response ( $\Delta W_G = -5$ ft/sec)	39
20. Short period gust response ( $\Delta W_G = -5$ ft/sec)	40
21. Classical phugoid ( $\Delta W = 0$ ) response to a gust input ( $\Delta W_G = -5$ ft/sec)	42
22. Coupled $\Delta W$ , $\Delta \theta$ , $\Delta U$ response to a gust input ( $\Delta W_G = 5$ ft/sec)	43
23. Augmented response ( $K_a = -0.007$ to a gust input ( $\Delta W_G = 5$ ft/sec)	44
24. Augmented response ( $K_\theta = -0.35$ ) to a gust input	45
25. Augmented response ( $K_a = -0.007$ , $K_\theta = -0.35$ ) to a gust input	46
26. $\Delta W_G$ gust response ( $K_a = -0.007$ , $K_\theta = -0.35$ , $K_I = -0.0007$ )	47
27. Autopilot/airframe $\Delta W_G$ gust response (Appendix, Figure A-4)	48
28. Coupled guidance response ( $n = 15$ , $R_m = 0$ , $\gamma_L = 8^\circ$ , $\gamma_F = 4^\circ$ )	50
29. Coupled control response ( $n = 15$ , $R_m = 0$ , $\gamma_L = 8^\circ$ , $\gamma_F = 4^\circ$ )	51
30. Coupled guidance response ( $n = 15$ , $R_m = 300$ ft, $\gamma_L = 8^\circ$ , $\gamma_F = 4^\circ$ , $\Delta W_G = 5$ ft/sec, $R_D = 600$ ft)	53
31. Coupled control response ( $n = 15$ , $R_m = 300$ ft, $\gamma_L = 8^\circ$ , $\gamma_F = 4^\circ$ , $\Delta W_G = 5$ ft/sec, $R_D = 600$ ft)	54
32. Coupled guidance response ( $n = 15$ , $R_m = 1000$ ft, $\gamma_L = 8^\circ$ , $\gamma_F = 4^\circ$ )	55
33. Coupled control response ( $n = 15$ , $R_m = 1000$ ft, $\gamma_L = 8^\circ$ , $\gamma_F = 4^\circ$ )	56
34. Coupled guidance response ( $n = 15$ , $R_m = 1000$ ft, $\gamma_L = 8^\circ$ , $\gamma_F = 4^\circ$ , $\Delta W_G = 5$ ft/sec, $R_D = 600$ ft)	57
35. Coupled control response ( $n = 15$ , $R_m = 1000$ ft, $\gamma_L = 8^\circ$ , $\gamma_F = 4^\circ$ , $\Delta W_G = 5$ ft/sec, $R_D = 600$ ft)	58
36. Coupled guidance response ( $n = 15$ , $R_m = 1000$ ft, $\gamma_L = 8^\circ$ , $\gamma_F = 4^\circ$ , $\Delta W_G = 5$ ft/sec, $R_D = 300$ ft)	59
37. Coupled control response ( $n = 15$ , $R_m = 1000$ ft, $\gamma_L = 8^\circ$ , $\gamma_F = 4^\circ$ , $\Delta W_G = 5$ ft/sec, $R_D = 300$ ft)	60
A-1. Short period airframe dynamics	63
A-2. Phugoid airframe dynamics and kinematics	64
A-3. Guidance formulation including gain and path angle limiting	65
A-4. Autopilot representation	66

## 1. INTRODUCTION

As indicated by the title, this report is specifically concerned with the longitudinal approach dynamics of remotely-piloted vehicles. Certain portions of this effort, however, are felt to be applicable to the more general problem of the IFR landing of aircraft of any type. In this report, the "guidance" function specifically refers to the process of defining the longitudinal trajectory of the aircraft through space and time from the point of acquisition to touchdown. If one denotes  $\lambda$  to be the angular error of the aircraft relative to the desired approach path and  $R$  the horizontal range to the landing point, then the desired spatial flight path may be described by  $\lambda = f(R)$ . If  $\dot{R}$  denotes the time variation of the horizontal range, the trajectory specification in space and time is completed by  $\dot{R} = g(R)$ . From the two functional relationships  $\lambda = f(R)$  and  $\dot{R} = g(R)$ , one may uniquely compute the force vector required to fly the trajectory through space and time. If one views the guidance function as specification of the force vector, then the "control" function is quite clearly the process of developing and controlling the aerodynamic, gravitational, and inertial forces acting on the airframe to equal the force vector specified by the guidance function. It is the opinion of the author that the guidance formulation contained in this document has complete application to the general problem of the IFR landing of aircraft of any type; however, the formulation has been specialized in this document to the case of a non-decelerating ( $\dot{R} = \text{constant}$ ) approach to the landing point.

The "control" function is strongly influenced by the nature of the application. For the landing of a piloted-aircraft, the control function emphasis will invariably center upon the landing display, pilot workload, airframe handling qualities and other so-called human factors. For the landing of a remotely-piloted-vehicle, design emphasis will tend toward the auto-pilot as it is the sole means for controlling the forces on the airframe in the prescribed manner. Of paramount importance to these two superficially different control problems is the specific character of the airframe (e.g., helicopter, fixed wing, aspect ratio, drag brakes, wing loading, control power, density altitude, etc.) as well as the nature of the on-board sensors (e.g., rate gyros, accelerometers, vertical gyros, etc.) which are available to modify the specific character of the airframe. The control problem considered within this document is the automatic landing of a mini-RPV of the delta wing variety.

The guidance and control of the lateral/directional motions of the RPV are not considered here. The general approach, particularly in the guidance formulation area, would be very similar to that used for control of the longitudinal motions of the aircraft.

## 2. GUIDANCE FORMULATION

The genesis of any guidance concept is the calculation of the resultant forces which must act on a vehicle to cause it to move along some desired flight path at some speed of flight. The force of interest here is the one which must act normal to the aircraft spatial velocity to produce the desired flight path curvature. Referring to Figure 1, the path curvature is related to the required incremental acceleration by

$$a = v \dot{\gamma} = v \frac{d\gamma}{dR} \frac{dR}{dt} \quad (2.1)$$

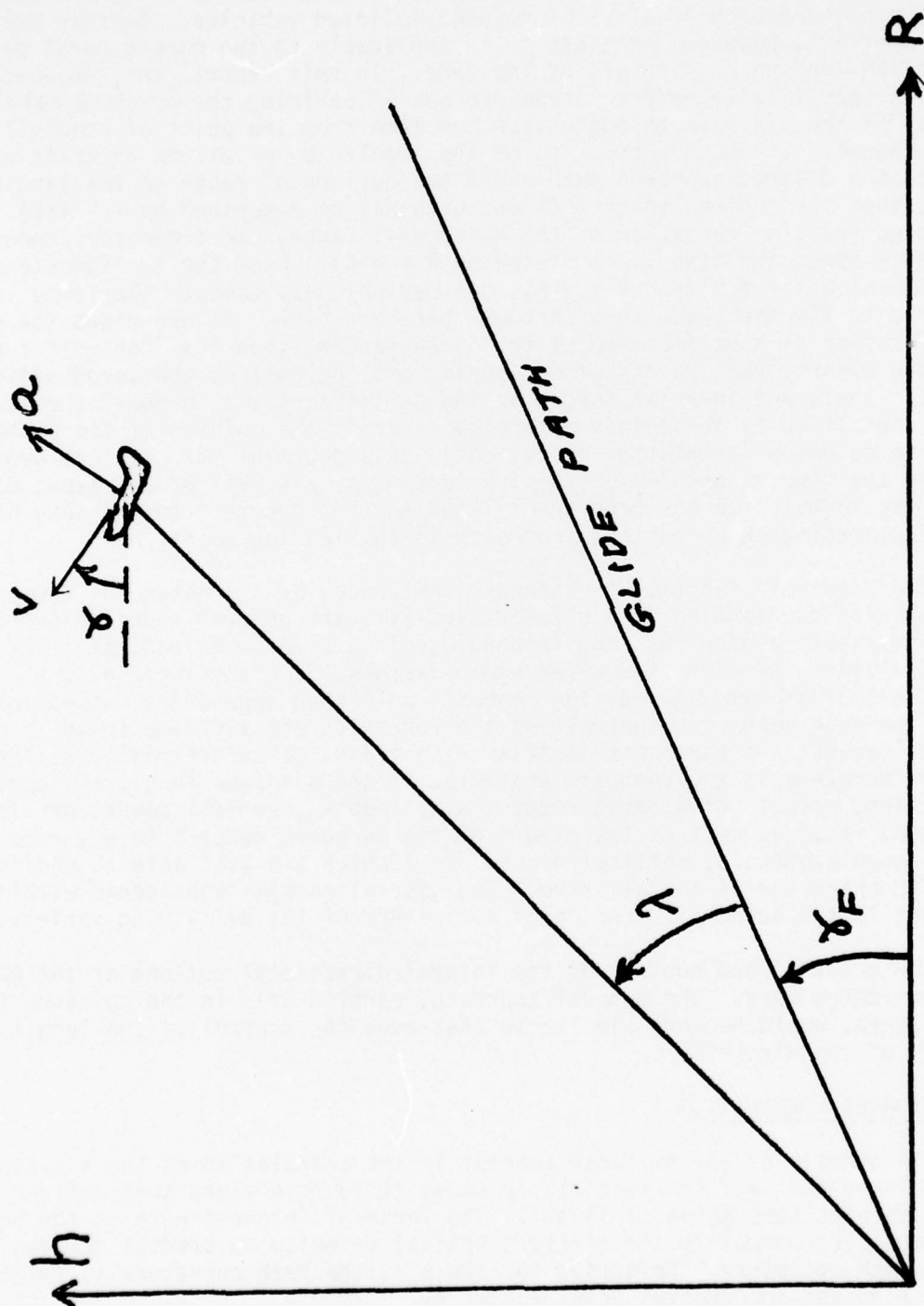


Figure 1. Approach coordinates



The time rate of change of ground range is,

$$\frac{dR}{dt} = \dot{R} = -v \cos \gamma \quad (2.2)$$

Note that  $\dot{R}$  is normally a negative number. The inclination of the flight path relative to the horizontal is defined by,

$$\tan \gamma = -\frac{dh}{dR} \quad (2.3)$$

By differentiating (2.3) with respect to the ground range variable (R), one finds;

$$\frac{d\gamma}{dR} = -\cos^2(\gamma) \frac{d^2h}{dR^2} \quad (2.4)$$

Substitution of (2.2) and (2.4) into (2.1) yields,

$$a = v^2 \cos^3 \gamma \frac{d^2h}{dR^2} \quad (2.5)$$

In a typical approach maneuver the flight path angle ( $\gamma$ ), the desired flight path angle ( $\gamma_F$ ), and the angular error ( $\lambda$ ) are small enough to assume  $\sin(\ ) = \text{TAN}(\ )$  and  $\cos(\ ) = 1$ .

$$a \approx \dot{R}^2 \frac{d^2h}{dR^2} \quad (2.6)$$

The approach guidance problem is generally more suited to an angular equation formulation rather than a linear displacement formulation. The conversion may be easily accomplished by use of the definition of the angular error ( $\lambda$ ),

$$\lambda = \frac{h}{R} - \gamma_F \quad (2.7)$$

Differentiating (2.7) with respect to the range variable (R),

$$\frac{d\lambda}{dR} = \frac{1}{R} \frac{dh}{dR} - \frac{1}{R} \left( \frac{h}{R} \right) \quad (2.8)$$

and then once again,

$$\frac{d^2\lambda}{dR^2} = \frac{1}{R} \frac{d^2h}{dR^2} - \frac{2}{R^2} \frac{dh}{dR} + \frac{2}{R^2} \left( \frac{h}{R} \right) \quad (2.9)$$

Using (2.3) and (2.7), equations (2.8) and (2.9) become,

$$\frac{d\lambda}{dR} = -\frac{1}{R} (\gamma + \gamma_F + \lambda) \quad (2.10)$$



And,

$$\frac{d^2\lambda}{dR^2} = \frac{1}{R} \frac{d^2h}{dR^2} - \frac{2}{R} \frac{d\lambda}{dR} \quad (2.11)$$

Rearranging (2.11),

$$\frac{d^2h}{dR^2} = R \frac{d^2\lambda}{dR^2} + 2 \frac{d\lambda}{dR} \quad (2.12)$$

and substitution of (2.12) into (2.6) yields,

$$a = \dot{R}^2 \left[ R \frac{d^2\lambda}{dR^2} + 2 \frac{d\lambda}{dR} \right] \quad (2.13)$$

Expression (2.13) relates the acceleration experienced at any range  $R$  by a body traveling along a shallow flight path  $\lambda = \lambda(R)$ , to its ground speed ( $R$ ) and to the specific nature of the flight path ( $d^2\lambda/dR^2$ ,  $d\lambda/dR$ ) at that range ( $R$ ).

Quite often one encounters a situation where a basically responsive vehicle must first be controlled, and then guided with precision along some pre-determined flight path. The "control" of the vehicle is conventionally associated with its short term behavior while the concept of "guidance" relates to its more long-term behavior. Quite often the dynamics of the control of the vehicle are substantially faster than the guidance dynamics; so much so, that the first-ordered analysis of the two functions may proceed independently. The landing approach of an RPV is of this class of problem. One may take advantage of this fact by assuming a desirable flight path, computing the guidance command required to follow the desirable flight path, and later concern oneself with the details of the autopilot required to follow the guidance command (i.e., the control function).

A stable flight path  $\lambda = \lambda(R)$  from the current state of the aircraft ( $\lambda = \lambda_1$ ,  $R = R_1$ ) to the desired landing point ( $\lambda = 0$ ,  $R = 0$ ) should satisfy the following constraints:

1. When  $R = 0$ ,  $\lambda = 0$ , and  $d\lambda/dR = 0$
2. When  $R = R_1$ ,  $\lambda = \lambda_1$ , and  $\frac{d\lambda}{dR} = -\frac{1}{R_1} (\gamma_1 + \lambda_1 + \gamma_F)$

(2.14)

Note that the current state of the aircraft is designated by the subscript "1." As four arbitrary coefficients are required to satisfy the four endpoint constraints, assume the flight path to be of the well-behaved form,

$$\lambda = C_0 + C_1 R + C_2 R^{n+1} + C_3 R^{n+2} \quad (2.15)$$

The quantity  $n$  is a constant parameter which will be used for adjusting system gain at acquisition. The constraints at  $R = 0$  immediately require  $C_0 = C_1 = 0$ . The remaining expressions for  $C_2$  and  $C_3$  follow from,

$$\lambda_1 = C_2 R_1^{n+1} + C_3 R_1^{n+2} \quad (2.16)$$

$$-\frac{1}{R_1} (\gamma_1 + \lambda_1 + \gamma_F) = (n+1) C_2 R_1^n + (n+2) C_3 R_1^{n+1} \quad (2.17)$$

Simultaneous solution of the algebraic equations (2.16) and (2.17) yields,

$$C_2 = \frac{1}{R_1 n + 1} \left[ (n+3) \lambda_1 + \gamma_1 + \gamma_F \right] \quad (2.18)$$

$$C_3 = \frac{1}{R_1 n + 2} \left[ -(n+2) \lambda_1 - \gamma_1 - \gamma_F \right] \quad (2.19)$$

The nominal flight path from the current state of the aircraft ( $R = R_1$ ,  $\lambda = \lambda_1$ ,  $\gamma = \gamma_1$ ) to the landing state of the aircraft ( $R = 0$ ,  $\lambda = 0$ ,  $\gamma = \gamma_F$ ) is,

$$\lambda = \left( \frac{R}{R_1} \right)^{n+1} \left[ (n+3) \lambda_1 + \gamma_1 + \gamma_F \right] + \left( \frac{R}{R_1} \right)^{n+2} \left[ -(n+2) \lambda_1 - \gamma_1 - \gamma_F \right] \quad (2.20)$$

Also,

$$\frac{d\lambda}{dR} = (n+1) \left( \frac{R}{R_1} \right)^n \left( \frac{1}{R_1} \right) \left[ (n+3) \lambda_1 + \gamma_1 + \gamma_F \right] + (n+2) \left( \frac{R}{R_1} \right)^{n+1} \left( \frac{1}{R_1} \right) \left[ -(n+2) \lambda_1 - \gamma_1 - \gamma_F \right] \quad (2.21)$$

and,

$$\frac{d^2\lambda}{dR^2} = (n)(n+1) \left( \frac{R}{R_1} \right)^{n-1} \left( \frac{1}{R_1} \right)^2 \left[ (n+3) \lambda_1 + \gamma_1 + \gamma_F \right] + (n+1)(n+2) \left( \frac{R}{R_1} \right)^n \left( \frac{1}{R_1} \right)^2 \left[ -(n+2) \lambda_1 - \gamma_1 - \gamma_F \right] \quad (2.22)$$

Substituting (2.21) and (2.22) into (2.13) yields,

$$a = \dot{R}^2 \left\{ (n+1)(n+2) \left( \frac{R}{R_1} \right)^n \left( \frac{1}{R_1} \right) \left[ (n+3) \lambda_1 + \gamma_1 + \gamma_F \right] + (n+2)(n+3) \left( \frac{R}{R_1} \right)^{n+1} \frac{1}{R_1} \left[ -(n+2) \lambda_1 - \gamma_1 - \gamma_F \right] \right\} \quad (2.23)$$

Again, (2.23) describes the acceleration profile required to fly the nominal flight path from the current state ( $R = R_1$ ,  $\gamma = \gamma_1$ ,  $\lambda = \lambda_1$ ) to the landing state. The current command ( $a_c$ ) results from using  $R = R_1$ , in (2.23). For current guidance command generation purposes, the subscripts "1" are dropped as all variables are current. The resultant guidance command is,

$$a_c = \frac{\dot{R}^2}{R} (n + 2) \left[ -(n + 3) \lambda - 2\gamma - 2\gamma_F \right] \quad (2.24)$$

In effect, the aircraft never attempts to return to any previous nominal flight path, but instead, continually recomputes a new nominal path from the current state. As the measurable quantities are  $\lambda$  and  $\dot{\lambda}$ , use of (2.10) and  $\dot{\lambda} = \dot{R} d\lambda/dR$  yields,

$$\dot{\lambda} = \frac{-\dot{R}}{R} (\lambda + \gamma + \gamma_F) \quad (2.25)$$

Use of (2.25) in (2.24) yields,

$$a_c = (-2\dot{R}) (n + 2) (\dot{\lambda}_c - \dot{\lambda}) \quad (2.26)$$

where

$$\dot{\lambda}_c = \frac{R (n + 1)}{2} \left( \frac{\lambda}{R} \right) \quad (2.27)$$

Expression 2.27 will be used in a later section to command limit  $\dot{\lambda}$  and hence the maximum descent angle ( $\gamma$ ). The acceleration command of (2.26) can be manipulated into a second-ordered, linear differential equation by use of (2.13).

$$\dot{R}^2 \left( R \frac{d^2\lambda}{dR^2} + 2 \frac{d\lambda}{dR} \right) = -2\dot{R} (n + 2) \left[ \frac{\dot{R}(n + 1)}{2} \frac{\lambda}{R} - R \frac{d\lambda}{dR} \right] \quad (2.28)$$

Rearrangement of (2.28) yields,

$$R^2 \frac{d^2\lambda}{dR^2} - 2 (n + 1) R \frac{d\lambda}{dR} + (n + 1) (n + 2) \lambda = 0 \quad (2.29)$$

The particular solution to 2.29 which satisfies the desired boundary conditions is obviously equation 2.20. (If this is not obvious, the reader should recall that the solution 2.20 was the assumed starting point.) Equation 2.29 will be used in the next section on limiting system gain.

Figure 2 depicts the response of 2.26 for acquisition of the glide slope ( $\gamma_F = 40^\circ$ ) at  $R = 3,000$  feet, with an initial altitude error of 100 feet ( $\lambda = 1/30$  radian). The range and altitude error channels are dynamically rescaled at  $R = 300$  feet for accuracy. The inherent stability of 2.26 for small values of  $R$  is quite clear.

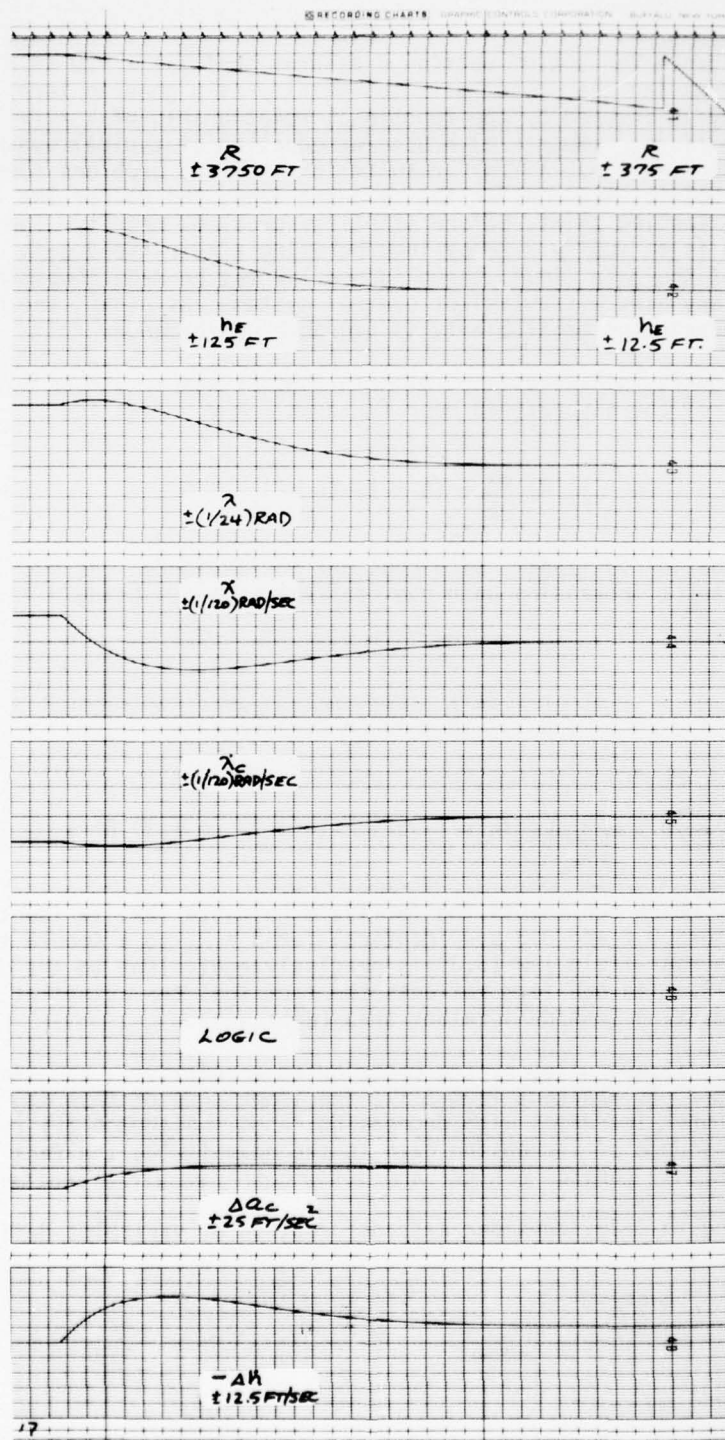


Figure 2. Ideal system response ( $n = 5$ ,  $\gamma_F = 40^\circ$ ,  $\dot{R} = -85 \text{ ft/sec}$ )



### 3. SYSTEM GAIN CONTROL

The guidance concept of section 2 assures that  $\lambda = \dot{\lambda} = 0$  as  $R$  goes to zero, by increasing the system gain to infinity as  $R$  goes to zero. Ideal system stability is insured by the functional relationship of  $\lambda = [\lambda(R)]$  to  $R$  as  $R$  goes to zero (i.e.,  $\lim_{R \rightarrow 0} (\lambda/R) = 0$ ). Introduction of typical dynamic lags in aircraft response (i.e.,  $a \neq a_c$ ) results in stability problems somewhere near the landing point. The smaller the response lags, the nearer the aircraft can approach the landing point, before stability problems result. The intent of this section is to modify 2.26 by incorporating a near-field gain control. By adjustment of the gain limit, the guidance law may be made compatible with the dynamics of any aircraft/autopilot control system. As usual, the price one pays for adequate system stability is degraded performance.

The author's initial attempt at gain control was to use an altered form of 2.29 to control the aircraft in near field ( $R \leq R_m$ ). That is,

$$R_m^2 \frac{d^2 \lambda}{dR^2} - 2(n+1) R_m \frac{d\lambda}{dR} + (n+1)(n+2) \lambda = 0 \quad (3.1)$$

The above equation is linear, with constant coefficients. As such, the most obvious source of increasing gain has been eliminated. Using 2.13 in 3.1 one finds;

$$\begin{aligned} R &\geq R_m \\ a_c &= 2(n+2) \dot{R} \dot{\lambda} - (n+1)(n+2) \dot{R}^2 (\lambda/R) \end{aligned} \quad (3.2)$$

$$\begin{aligned} R &\leq R_m \\ a_c &= 2\dot{R} \dot{\lambda} + \left( \frac{R}{R_m} \right) \left[ 2(n+1) \dot{R} \dot{\lambda} - \frac{(n+1)(n+2) R^2 \lambda}{R_m} \right] \end{aligned} \quad (3.3)$$

Equation 3.2, which represents the far-field guidance law, is identical to 2.26. Equations 3.2 and 3.3 are identical for  $R = R_m$  so a smooth transition is assured. The near-field law (3.3) is precisely equivalent to the differential equation (3.1). Its odd form reflects the fact that the autopilot will control normal acceleration ( $d^2h/dR^2$ ) rather than ( $d^2\lambda/dR^2$ ).

The aircraft/autopilot system contributes a relatively constant dynamic lag in  $d^2h/dR^2$ . As apparent from 2.11, the importance of this lag to the behavior of  $d^2\lambda/dR^2$ , increases with decreasing range. Although 3.1 removes the most obvious source of increasing gain in the near field, the fact that the autopilot can only control  $d^2h/dR^2$  and not  $d^2\lambda/dR^2$ , required another approach.

Returning to 2.29, consider a transformation of variables defined by

$$\lambda = \frac{h}{R} - \gamma_F = \frac{h_E}{R} \quad (3.4)$$



Differentiation with respect to the ground range (R) yields,

$$\frac{d\lambda}{dR} = \frac{1}{R} \left[ \frac{dh_E}{dR} - \frac{h_E}{R} \right] \quad (3.5)$$

and once again

$$\frac{d^2\lambda}{dR^2} = \frac{1}{R} \left[ \frac{d^2h_E}{dR^2} - \frac{2}{R} \frac{dh_E}{dR} + \frac{2h_E}{R} \right] \quad (3.6)$$

Substitution of 3.5 and 3.6 into 2.29 results in,

$$R^2 \frac{d^2h_E}{dR^2} - 2(n+2) R \frac{dh_E}{dR} + (n+2)(n+3) h_E = 0 \quad (3.7)$$

The above equation describes the ideal response of the guidance law in terms of altitude error relative to the desired straight line approach path of inclination  $\gamma_F$ . It is completely equivalent to 2.29 which relates system response in terms of the angular error ( $\lambda$ ) rather than the altitude error ( $h_E$ ).

Near field guidance will be based upon the following linear differential equation with constant coefficients obtained from 3.7,

$$R_m^2 \frac{d^2h_E}{dR^2} - 2(n+2) R_m \frac{dh_E}{dR} + (n+2)(n+3) h_E = 0 \quad (3.8)$$

Since  $d^2h/dR^2$  is equal to  $d^2h_E/dR^2$ , the first term is measurable and, in fact, under control of the autopilot. The near-field guidance law formulation will be completed by elimination of  $dh_E/dR$  and  $h_E$  in favor of the measurable quantities  $\dot{\lambda}$  and  $\lambda$ .

Using 3.4 and 3.5 in 3.8, one finds,

$$\frac{d^2h_E}{dR^2} = 2(n+2) \left( \frac{R}{R_m} \right) \left\{ \left[ 1 - \frac{(n+3)}{2} \frac{R}{R_m} \right] \left( \frac{\lambda}{R} \right) + \frac{d\lambda}{dR} \right\} \quad (3.9)$$

or

$$\underline{R \leq R_m}$$

$$a_c = -2(n+2) (\dot{R}) \left( \frac{R}{R_m} \right) (\dot{\lambda}_c - \dot{\lambda}) \quad (3.10)$$

where,

$$\dot{\lambda}_c = (-\dot{R}) \left[ 1 - \frac{(n+3)}{2} \left( \frac{R}{R_m} \right) \right] \left( \frac{\lambda}{R} \right) \quad (3.11)$$

Expressions 3.10 and 3.11 are equal to the far-field guidance expressions 2.26 and 2.27 when  $R = R_m$  insuring a smooth transition. A single guidance expression encompassing both the near-field and far-field laws is,

$$a_c = (-2\dot{R}) (n+2) \left( \frac{R}{R'} \right) (\lambda_c - \dot{\lambda}) \quad (3.12)$$

where,

$$\dot{\lambda}_c = (-\dot{R}) \left[ 1 - \left( \frac{n+3}{2} \right) \left( \frac{R}{R'} \right) \right] (\lambda/R) \quad (3.13)$$

and,

$$R' = R \quad \text{if} \quad R \geq R_m$$

$$R' = R_m \quad \text{if} \quad R \leq R_m$$

The guidance law operates in the far-field on the measured angular information with increasing gain as the range decreases. At some range ( $R = R_m$ ) the guidance concept, in effect, converts the measured angular information ( $\lambda, \dot{\lambda}$ ) to its linear equivalent ( $h_e, \dot{h}_e$ ) and then freezes the system gain at the  $R_m$  value. If the system is stable at a range  $R_m$ , it will be stable for all  $R \leq R_m$ . One should realize, however, that the system will respond to a gust input which occurs at any range  $R < R_m$  with the same urgency as if it had occurred at  $R = R_m$ . One's obvious goal then, is to make sure that the system achieves its maximum tolerable gain at  $R = R_m$  to minimize the effects of near-field disturbances due to wind gusts and manual tracking errors.

To quantify the near-field gust response of this guidance formulation, consider the response of 3.8 to an aerodynamically-produced disturbance. Later in this document, the effects of the autopilot design upon gust alleviation/amplification will be addressed. There, one will find that the pitch attitude behavior of the stabilized airframe in response to a normal wind gust ( $\Delta W_G$ ) disturbance controls the degree of gust amplification/alleviation (i.e., the resulting  $h$  or  $\gamma$  response). If the airframe does not pitch, a wind gust of magnitude  $\Delta W_G$  will soon translate the airframe at that rate (i.e.,  $\dot{h} = \Delta W_G$ ). The time lag to achieve this rate is predominately the "short period mode" of the airframe. For the analysis to follow, this time lag is ignored and equation 3.8 is subjected to the following initial conditions when  $t = 0$ ;

$$h_e = 0, \quad \frac{dh_e}{dt} = \Delta W_G \quad (3.14)$$

where  $\Delta W_G$  is positive for an up-gust. The following change of variables is convenient for analytical purposes.

$$R_T = R_D - R \quad (3.15)$$

where  $R_D$  is the range from the desired landing point at which the wind gust occurs, and  $R_T$  is the transposed range variable. Equation 3.8 becomes,

$$R_m^2 \frac{d^2 h_E}{dR_T^2} + 2(n+2) R_m \frac{dh_E}{dR_T} + (n+2)(n+3) h_E = 0 \quad (3.16)$$

subject to the initial conditions, at  $R_T = 0$ ,

$$h_E = 0, \quad \frac{dh_E}{dR_T} = \left( \frac{\Delta W_G}{-R} \right) = \Delta \alpha_G \quad (3.17)$$

The variable  $\Delta \alpha_G$  is physically the change in airframe angle of attack produced by the wind gust (i.e.,  $\Delta \gamma(0) = \Delta \alpha_G$  due to  $\Delta \theta$  being assumed equal to zero). Since equation 3.6 is linear with constant coefficients, its solution is easily obtained by Laplace transform techniques. Using,

$$\mathcal{L}[f^{(m)}(t)] = s^m F(s) - s^{m-1} f(0) - s^{m-2} f'(0) \dots \quad (3.18)$$

The Laplace transform of the solution is

$$H_E(s) = \frac{\Delta \alpha_G}{s^2 + \frac{2(n+2)}{R_m} s + \frac{(n+2)(n+3)}{R_m^2}} \quad (3.19)$$

The nondimensional solution is,

$$\bar{h}_E(\bar{R}_T) = \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{n+2}} \right) e^{-(n+2)\bar{R}_T} \sin(\sqrt{n+2}\bar{R}_T) \quad (3.20)$$

where

$$\bar{h}_E(\bar{R}_T) = \frac{h_E(R_T/R_m)}{\Delta \alpha_G R_m} \quad (3.21)$$

Figure 3 is a plot of (3.20) for a family of values of the parameter (n). This figure indicates that with  $R_m$  held constant, increases in the parameter (n) decrease the maximum error amplitude ( $h_E$ ). The worst case location for the arresting gear ( $R = 0$ ) is where the peak gust response occurs ( $\bar{R}_T = \bar{R}_{TMAX}$ ) for any value of the parameter (n). As indicated previously, the intent is to cause the system gain to be at its maximum tolerable value at  $R = R_m$ . This in effect specifies a single value for n so that conclusions made concerning variations in n, with  $R_m$  held constant, are invalid. A change in n demands a change in  $R_m$  to hold the system gain constant. Consider the undamped natural frequency of oscillation ( $\omega_H$ ) and damping factor ( $E_H$ ) of 3.16.

$$\omega_H = \frac{\sqrt{(n+2)(n+3)}}{R_m} \quad (3.22)$$

$$E_H = \sqrt{\frac{n+2}{n+3}} \quad (3.23)$$

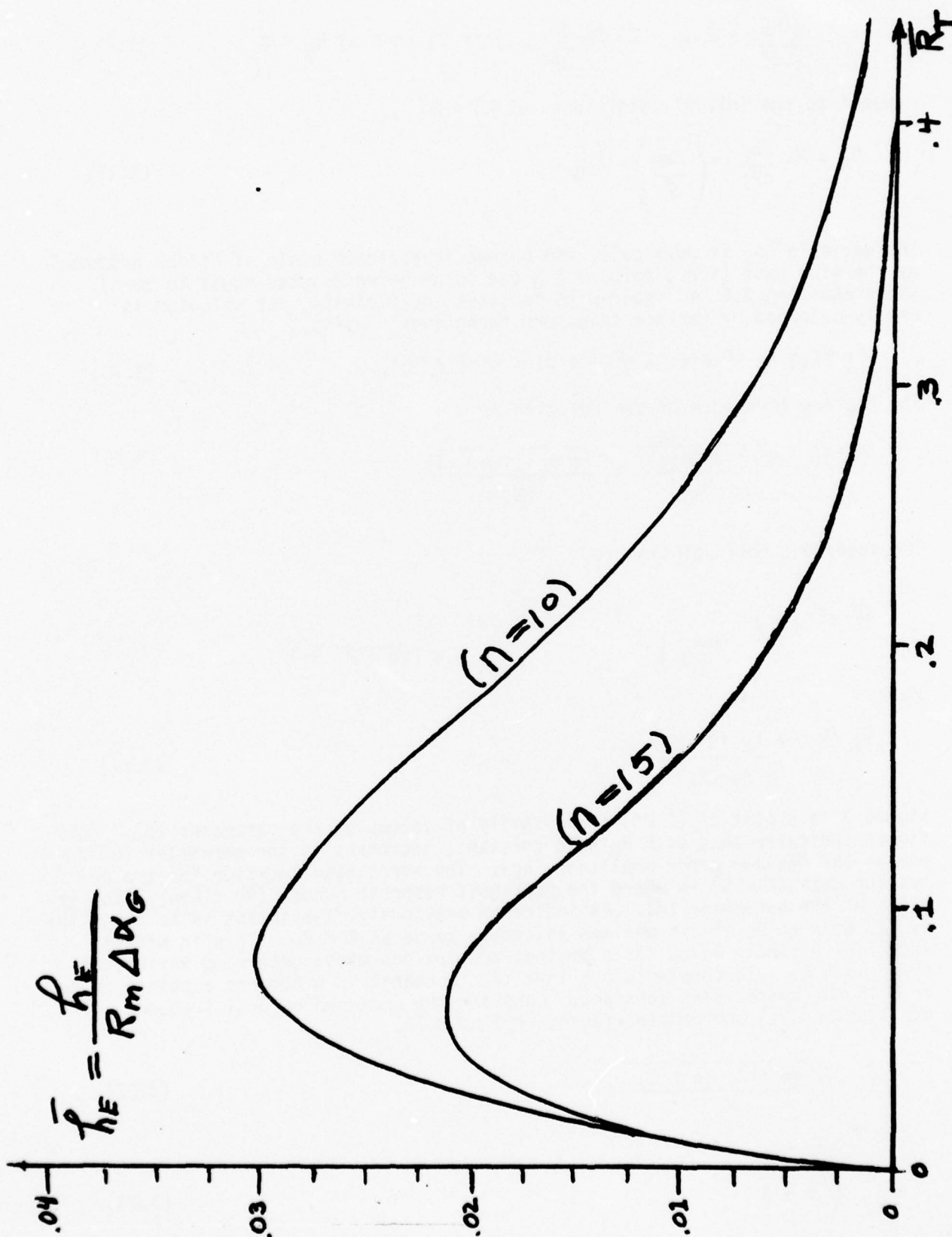


Figure 3. Idealized altitude error response to a vertical gust



If one makes an a priori assumption that  $R_m \sim 1000$  feet and  $n \sim 10$  are typical, then one may approximate (3.22) and (3.23) by,

$$W_H \sim \frac{n+2}{R_m} \quad (3.24)$$

$$E_H \sim 1 \quad (3.25)$$

The frequency of oscillation ( $W_H$ ) best characterizes the concept of system gain and stability so that the desire is to examine the behavior of (3.20) with  $W_H$  held constant rather than  $R_m$ .

The peak value for  $\bar{h}_E(\bar{R}_T)$  results from first differentiating (3.20) with respect to  $\bar{R}_T$ , setting the result equal to zero, and solving the resultant equation for the value of  $\bar{R}_T$  at which the peak occurs ( $\bar{R}_{TMAX}$ )

$$\bar{R}_{TMAX} = \frac{\tan^{-1}(1/\sqrt{n+2})}{\sqrt{n+2}} \quad (3.26)$$

Again assuming  $n \sim 10$ ,

$$\bar{R}_{TMAX} \approx \frac{1}{n+2} \quad (3.27)$$

or,

$$R_{TMAX} \approx \frac{R_m}{n+2} \approx W_H^{-1} \quad (3.28)$$

Substituting (3.27) into (3.20) one finds the peak nondimensional amplitude ( $\bar{h}_{EMAX}$ )

$$\bar{h}_{EMAX} \approx \frac{1}{\sqrt{n+2}} e^{-1} \text{SIN}(1/\sqrt{n+2}) \quad (3.29)$$

Again using  $n \sim 10$

$$\bar{h}_{EMAX} \approx \frac{e^{-1}}{n+2}$$

or,

$$\frac{\bar{h}_{EMAX}}{\Delta \alpha_G} = \frac{P_{me}^{-1}}{n+2} = e^{-1} W_H^{-1} \quad (3.30)$$



For the autopilot control system discussed in a later section, stability considerations dictate that the minimum value of  $W_H^{-1}$  is on the order of 60 feet. From (3.30), the worst case gust response for the RPV system of this document is approximately 21 feet of error per radian of  $\Delta\alpha_G$  or at an approach speed of 85 feet per second, approximately 1/4 foot of error per foot per second of  $\Delta W_G$ .

As indicated by (3.28) and (3.30), the gust characteristics of the guidance law during the final approach phase ( $R < R_m$ ) are only a function of the chosen spatial period ( $W_H^{-1}$ ) of the system. It is suggested here that the choice of the particular combination of  $n$  and  $R_m$  to achieve this chosen spatial period ( $W_H^{-1} \sim 60$  feet) be influenced by two considerations. These are (1) the amount of time ( $\sim R_m/\dot{R}$ ) desired for high gain, concentrated tracking in the final approach phase and (2) the system gain at acquisition ( $R \sim 3000$  feet). For the present, judgment (Figure 4) was used to select the  $R_m = 1000$  feet,  $n = 15$  option for this brief automated simulation test. This allows about 12 seconds for the final approach phase and reduces acquisition system gain (feet per second<sup>2</sup> of commanded acceleration per radian of measured angular error  $\lambda$ ) by a factor of 3 from its value at initiation of the final approach phase.

Figures 5 through 8 depict the gust response of 3.13 without gain limiting (i.e.,  $R_m = 0$ ), when subjected to an upgust ( $\Delta W_G = -\dot{R}\Delta\alpha_G = 5$  FPS) at several ranges. The system is initially trimmed on the descent path and is perturbed from this path by the upgust. Since the assumption of  $\Delta\theta = 0$  and initially  $\Delta h = \Delta W_G$  are retained, the associated step change in  $\lambda$  is clear. Since the system gain is continually increasing, the peak  $\Delta h_E$  decreases for decreasing range. Although Figure 3 is only truly valid for values of  $R$  less than  $R_m$ , use of  $R_m = R_D$  gives a good approximation to the results of Figures 5 through 8 where  $R_m = 0$ . For example, from Figure 5, the peak altitude error is  $\Delta h_E = 4$  feet. From Figure 3 for  $R_m = R_D = 3000$  feet, the predicted value is  $\Delta h_E = 3.7$  feet ( $\Delta h_E = 0.021 \Delta\alpha_G R_D$ ). As indicated by the nondimensional results, the peak  $h_E$  remains approximately proportional to the range ( $R_D$ ) at which the excitation occurred (e.g., 4 feet at  $R_D = 3000$  feet, 3 feet at  $R_D = 2250$  feet, 2 feet at  $R_D = 1500$  feet and 1 foot at  $R_D = 750$  feet as shown by Figures 5 through 8).

Figures 9 through 12 depict the ideal system gust response with gain limiting. Figures 9 and 10 were computed with  $R_m = 3000$  feet and demonstrate the desired invariant  $\Delta h_E$  response for all values of  $R \leq R_m$ . These two traces should be compared with Figure 5 ( $R_m = 0$ ) where the disturbance was applied at  $R_D = 3000$  feet. Figures 11 and 12 were computed with  $R_m = 1000$  feet and demonstrate the ideal system response for the suggested  $n = 14$ ,  $R_m = 1000$  foot design configuration. For the gust response of the design configuration for  $R > R_m$ , one should refer to Figures 5, 6, and 7 as gain limiting is not in effect for  $R > R_m$ .

Again, it should be emphasized that the preceding results for  $\Delta\theta = 0$  represent the worst case as far as gust sensitivity is concerned. When the airframe is free to respond in pitch attitude to a  $\Delta W_G$  disturbance, the peak  $\Delta h_E$  will decrease.

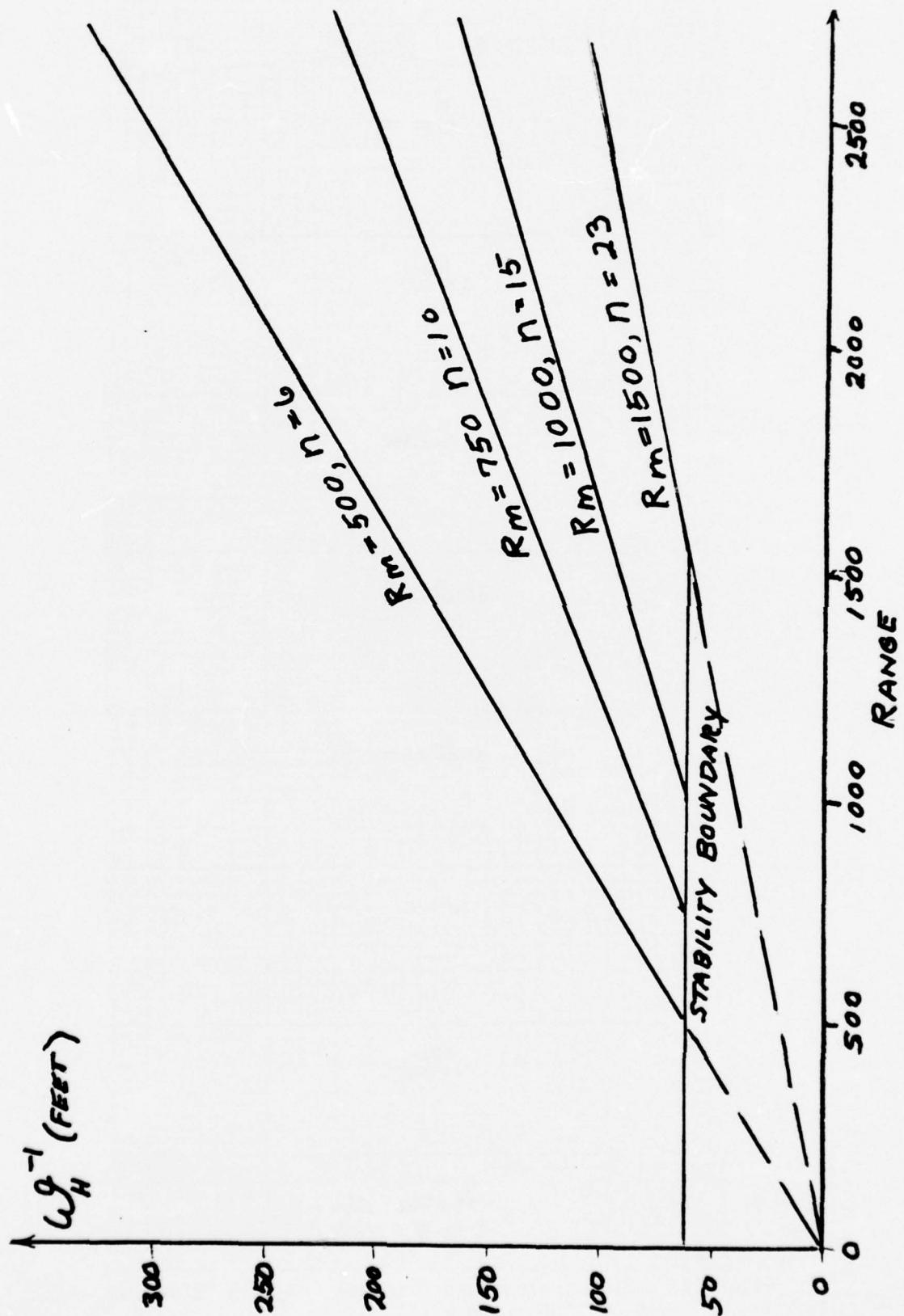


Figure 4. Spatial period of normal acceleration guidance law

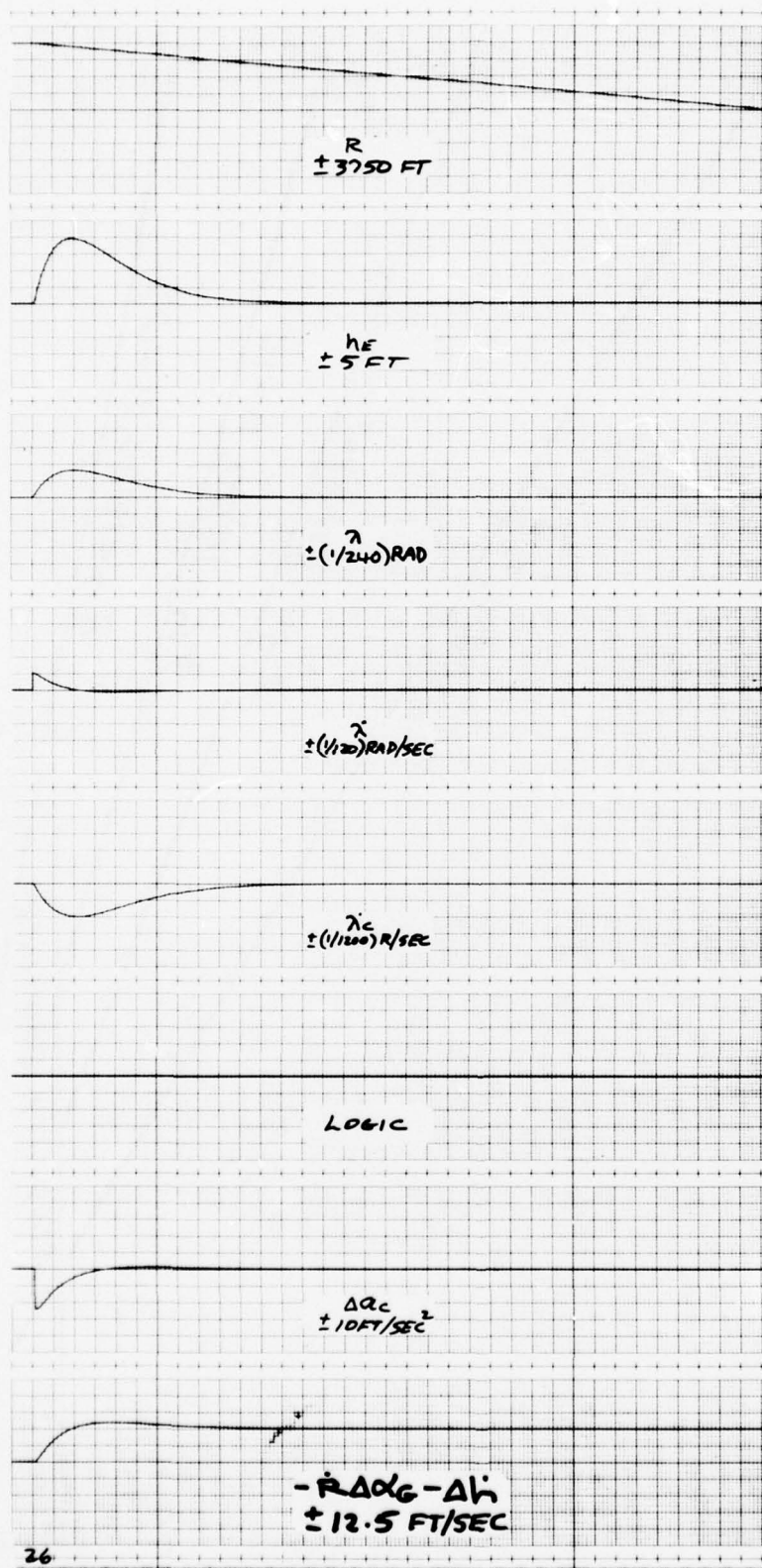


Figure 5. Ideal system gust response ( $\Delta W_G = 5$  ft/sec,  $R_m = 0$ ,  $R_D = 3000$  ft,  $n = 15$ )

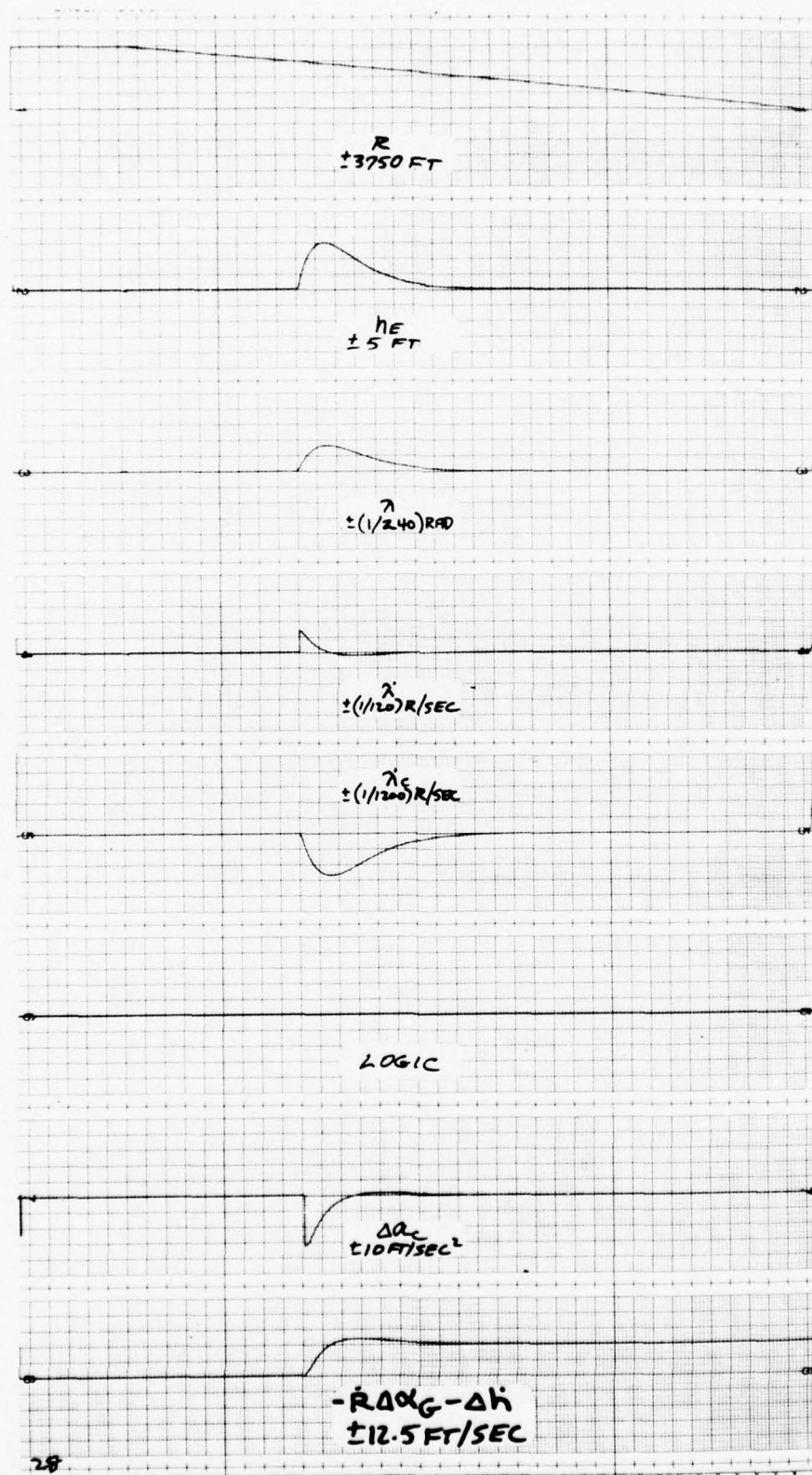


Figure 6. Ideal system gust response ( $\Delta W_G = 5 \text{ ft/sec}$ ,  $R_m = 0$ ,  $R_D = 2250 \text{ ft}$ ,  $n = 15$ )



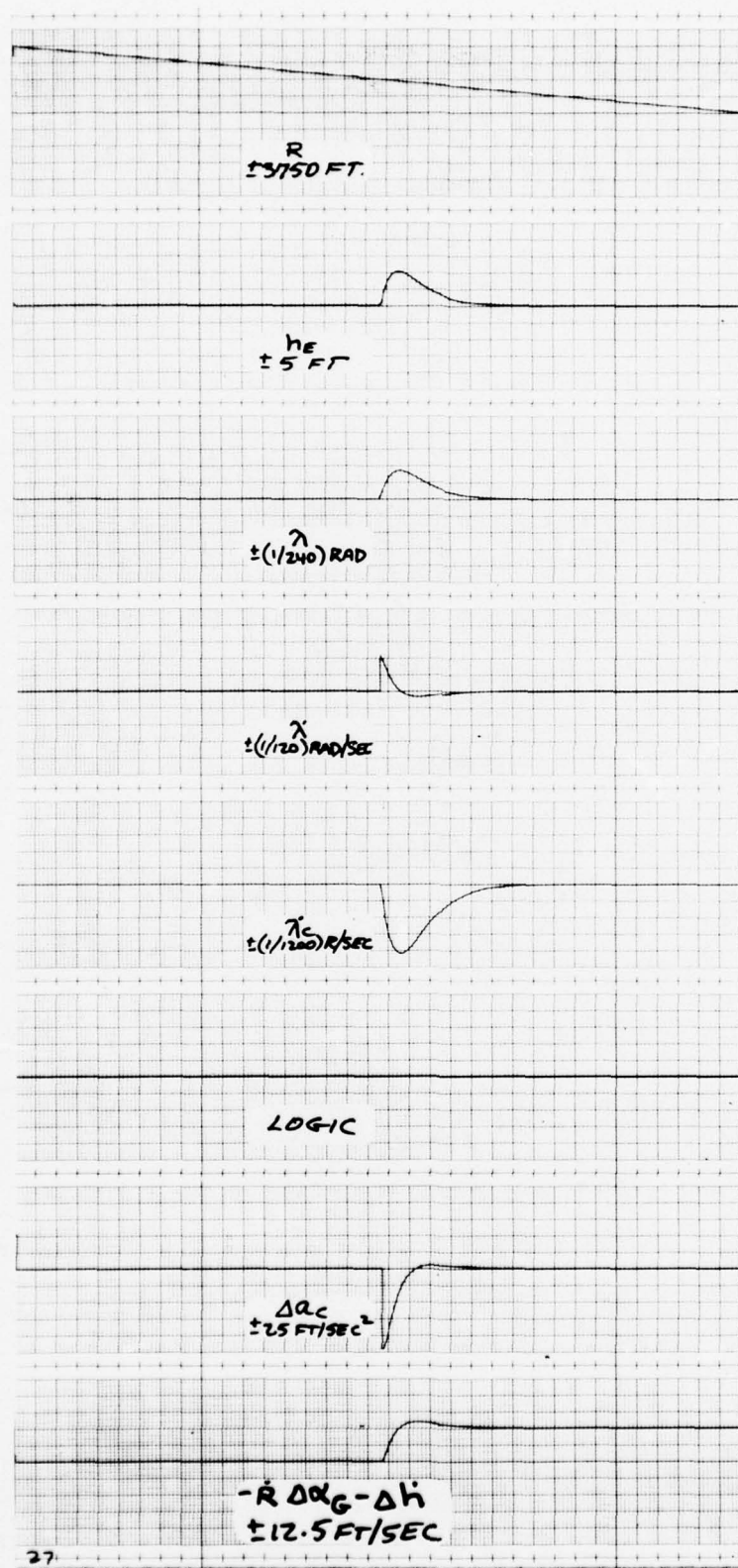


Figure 7. Ideal system gust response ( $\Delta W_G = 5 \text{ ft/sec}$ ,  $R_m = 0$ ,  $R_D = 1500 \text{ ft}$ ,  $n = 15$ )



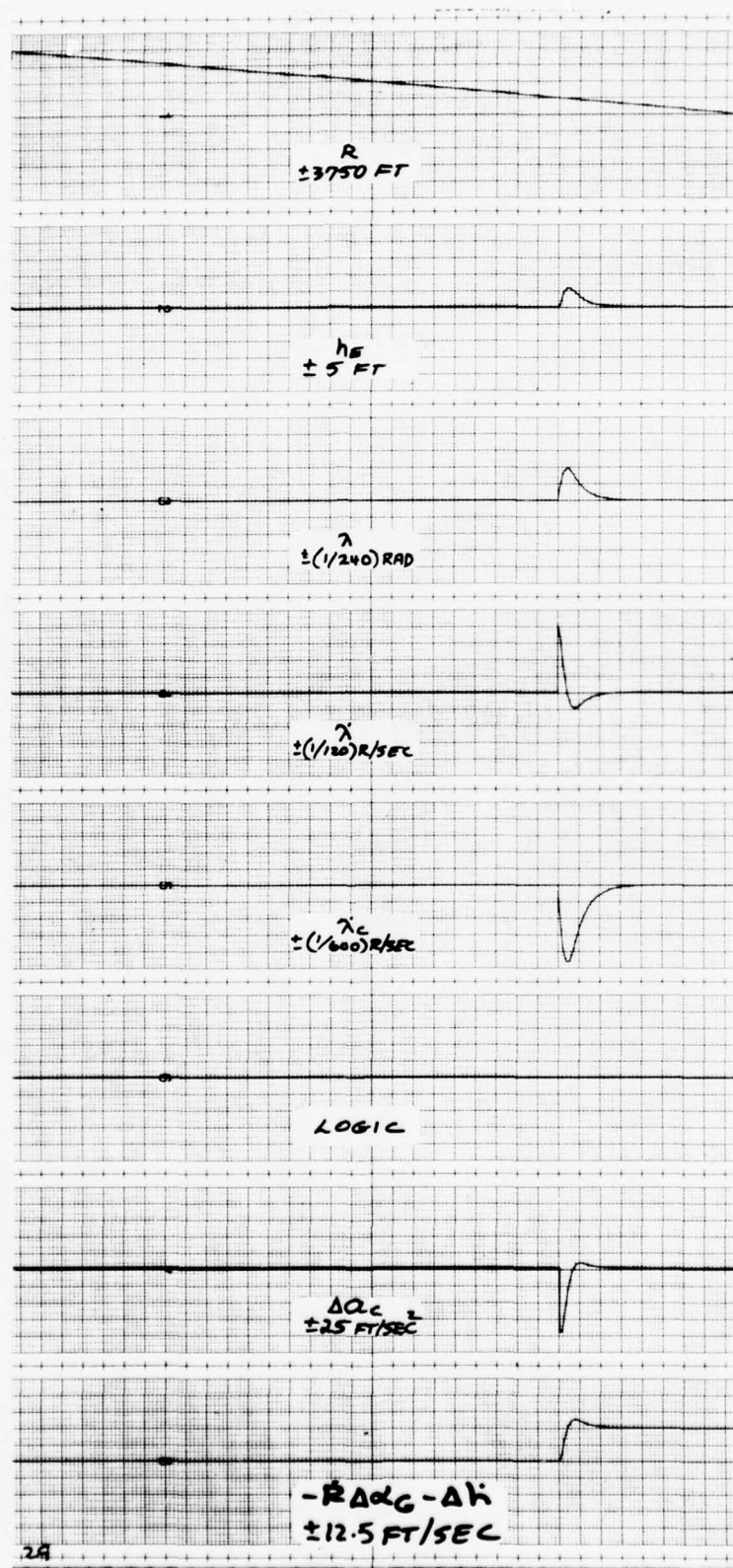


Figure 8. Ideal system gust response ( $\Delta W_G = 5 \text{ ft/sec}$ ,  $R_m = 0$ ,  $R_D = 750 \text{ ft}$ ,  $n = 15$ )

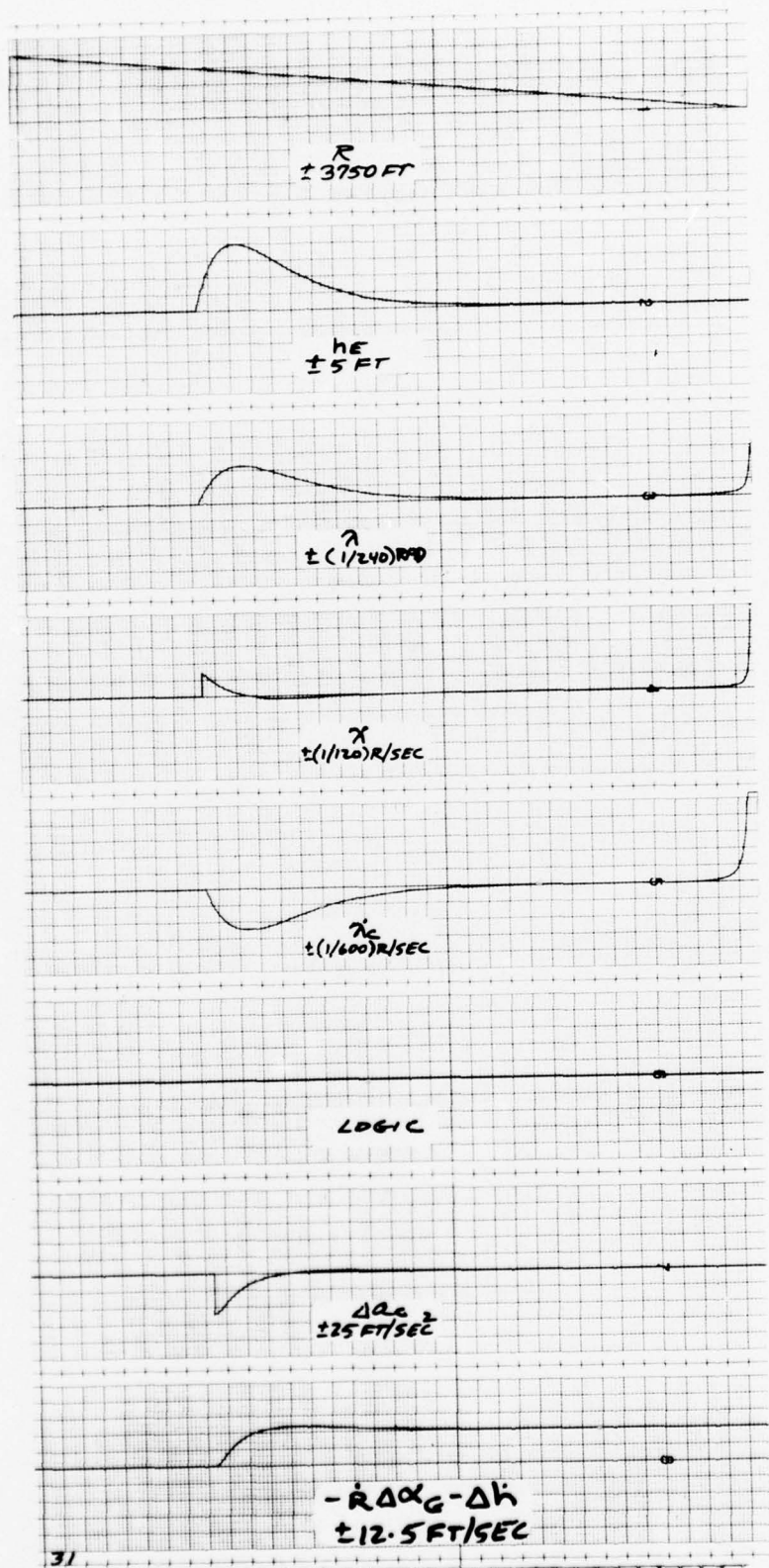


Figure 9. Ideal system gust response ( $\Delta W_G = 5 \text{ ft/sec}$ ,  $R_m = 3000 \text{ ft}$ ,  $R_D = 2250 \text{ ft}$ ,  $n = 15$ )

Figure 2. Ideal system response ( $n = 5$ ,  $\gamma_F = 4^\circ$ ,  $\dot{R} = -85$  ft/sec)

7

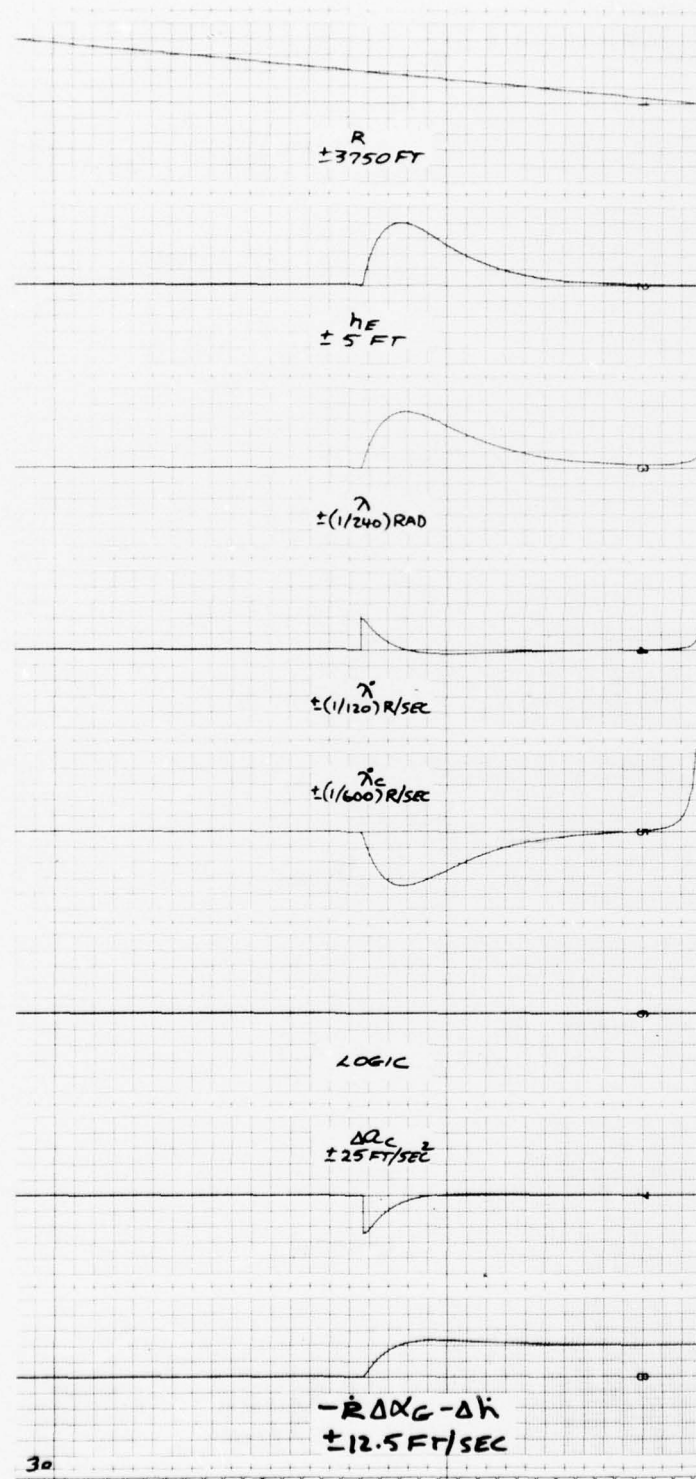


Figure 10. Ideal system gust response ( $\Delta W_G = 5$  ft/sec,  $R_m = 3000$  ft,  $R_D = 1500$  ft,  $n = 15$ )



Figure 11. Ideal system gust response ( $\Delta W_G = 5 \text{ ft/sec}$ ,  $R_m = 1000 \text{ ft}$ ,  $R_D = 1000 \text{ ft}$ ,  $n = 15$ )



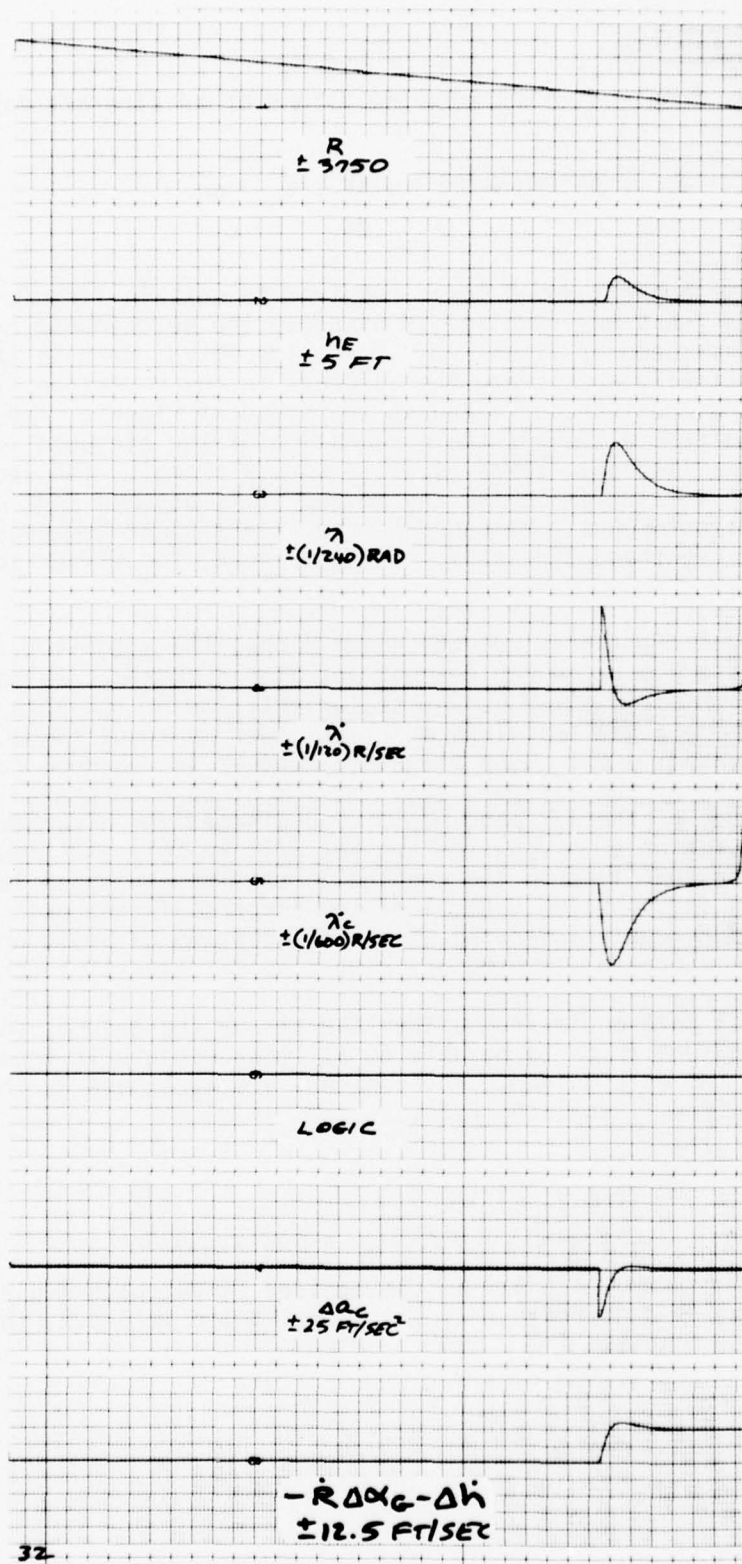


Figure 12. Ideal system gust response ( $\Delta W_G = 5 \text{ ft/sec}$ ,  $R_m = 1000 \text{ ft}$ ,  $R_D = 600 \text{ ft}$ ,  $n = 15$ )

#### 4. PATH ANGLE CONTROL

The power required to sustain the flight of an aircraft may be represented by,

$$P_{REQ} = \bar{L} \cdot \bar{W}_i + \bar{D} \cdot \bar{V}_W + \bar{V}_W \cdot m \frac{d\bar{V}}{dt} + \bar{V}_W \cdot m\bar{g} \quad (4.1)$$

The first term is the induced power required to sustain lift ( $\bar{L} \cdot \bar{W}_i$ ). The second term is the power required to overcome the aerodynamic drag of the aircraft at the airspeed of flight ( $\bar{D} \cdot \bar{V}_W$ ). The third term is the power required to inertially accelerate the aircraft in any direction ( $\bar{V}_W \cdot m \frac{d\bar{V}}{dt}$ ) such as turning, pull-up, or changing the speed of flight. The last term is the power required to sustain the orientation of the airspeed ( $\bar{V}_W \cdot m\bar{g}$ ) relative to the gravitational force (e.g., a steady climb). The source of the power input to the system is the engine and it is assumed  $P_{REQ} = P_{ENG}$  (i.e., the engine instantaneously responds to the flight power demands). The minimum value for the righthand side of 4.1 is, therefore, the flight idle power output of the engine.

When the aircraft acquires the glide slope, the autopilot is able to pitch the aircraft over to begin the descent and also decrease  $P_{ENG}$  to maintain the desired approach airspeed ( $\bar{V}_W$ ). As the orientation of the airspeed ( $\bar{V}_W$ ) steepens ( $\bar{V}_W \cdot m\bar{g}$  more negative), less and less power is required to maintain airspeed ( $\bar{V}_W \cdot m \frac{d\bar{V}}{dt} \approx 0$ ). When flight idle power is reached, further increases in the steepness of the airspeed ( $\bar{V}_W \cdot m\bar{g}$ ), must be accompanied by an increase in the magnitude of the airspeed ( $\bar{V}_W$ ). The cleaner the aircraft is in the approach configuration ( $\bar{D} \cdot \bar{V}_W$ ), the smaller will be this limiting path angle. These considerations lead to the conclusion that the guidance law must incorporate a means for positive control of the aircraft flight path angle ( $\gamma$ ) in a descent. As previously indicated, this is necessary to avoid undesirable increases in the approach airspeed which must be arrested at touchdown.

To control path angle from either the air or the ground, one must be able to directly measure it or to be able to at least compute it from other measurements. Since the only guidance measurements are  $\lambda$ ,  $\dot{\lambda}$ , and  $R$ , the latter approach is required. Recalling 2.25,

$$\dot{\lambda} = \dot{R} \frac{d\lambda}{dR} = \frac{-\dot{R}}{R} (\gamma + \gamma_F + \lambda) \quad (4.2)$$

The only unknown quantity in 4.2 is the desired flight path angle ( $\gamma$ ). If the desired maximum descent angle ( $-\gamma_L$ ) is substituted into 4.2, then a limit on the allowable  $\dot{\lambda}$  results.

$$\dot{\lambda}_{CLIM} = -\frac{\dot{R}}{R} (-\gamma_L + \gamma_F + \lambda) \quad (4.3)$$

The intent is to subject 3.12 and 3.13 to a command limiting process as defined by 4.3. The command limit ( $\dot{\lambda}_{CLIM}$ ) is variable being a function of instantaneous range and angular error. In addition to functioning as a command limit,  $\dot{\lambda}_{CLIM}$  can also act as an automatic abort signal. Normally  $\dot{\lambda}_{CLIM}$  is negative as  $\gamma_i$  is certainly greater than  $\gamma_F$  and  $\lambda$  is nominally zero. A positive value for  $\dot{\lambda}_{CLIM}$  indicates that  $\lambda$  has become, either at acquisition or later in the approach, too large to execute the maneuvers to touchdown. This would be even more important if a positive limit  $\dot{\lambda}_{CLIM}^+$  was imposed on the guidance law to avoid attempting to climb at too steep an angle for the maximum engine power available. The positive limit will not be considered further here as a complete engine simulation is necessary to explore this boundary of the flight envelope.

The complete guidance law is,

$$a_c = (-2\dot{R}) (n+2) \left( \frac{R}{R'} \right) (\dot{\lambda}_c - \dot{\lambda}) \quad (4.4)$$

where,

$$\dot{\lambda}_c = -\dot{R} \left[ 1 - \left( \frac{n+3}{2} \right) \left( \frac{R}{R'} \right) \right] (\lambda/R) \quad (4.5)$$

and,

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \dot{\lambda}_c &= \dot{\lambda}_c & \text{if } \dot{\lambda}_c \leq \dot{\lambda}_{CLIM}^- \\ \dot{\lambda}_c &= \dot{\lambda}_{CLIM}^- & \text{if } \dot{\lambda}_c > \dot{\lambda}_{CLIM}^- \end{aligned} \right\} \quad (4.6)$$

and,

$$\left. \begin{aligned} R' &= R & \text{if } R > R_m \\ R' &= R_m & \text{if } R \leq R_m \end{aligned} \right\} \quad (4.7)$$

Figure 13 depicts the ideal system response ( $\Delta a = \Delta a_c$ ) for the guidance law (4.4) from acquisition at  $R = 3000$  feet and  $\Delta h_E = 100$  feet to touchdown. The channel labeled "LOGIC" indicated the fraction of the flight path during which command limiting of  $\lambda$  was in effect ( $\gamma_L = 8^\circ$ ).

## 5. AIRFRAME/AUTOPILOT REPRESENTATION

There is a tendency to consider the complete airborne computing capability (analog or digital considerations are of no consequence) as the "auto-pilot." Under such circumstances, the design objectives of the guidance function and the control function may become unnecessarily interrelated or even obscured. The view taken within this report is that the control function pertains to the control of forces, of any origin, which act on the aircraft. The aerodynamic and inertial forces on the aircraft are predominately a function of the translational ( $U, V, W$ ) and rotational ( $p, q, r$ ) rates of the airframe and their

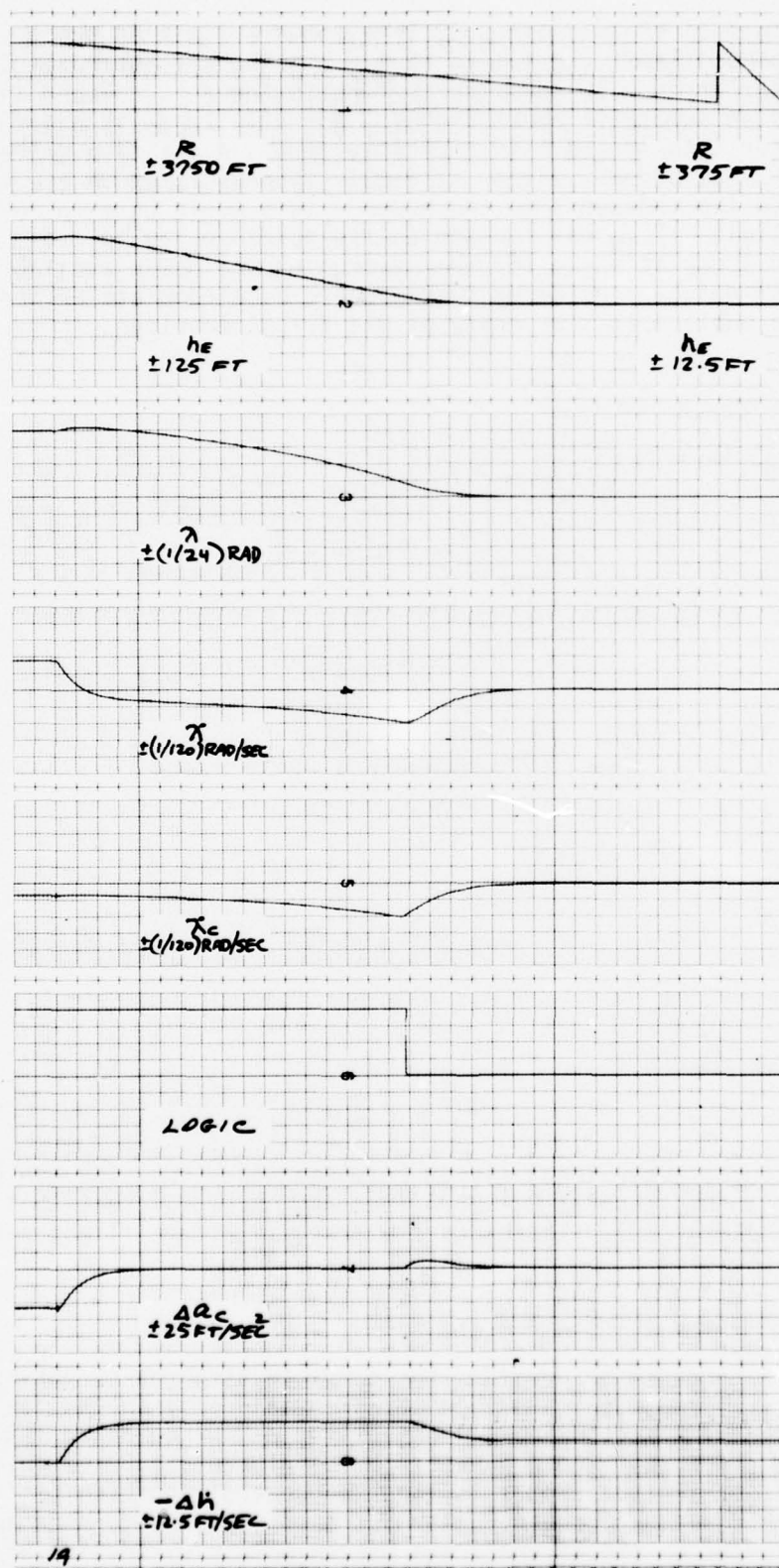


Figure 13. Ideal system response ( $\gamma_L = 8^\circ$ ,  $\gamma_F = 4^\circ$ ,  $R_m = 1000 \text{ ft}$ ,  $n = 15$ ,  $R = -85 \text{ ft/sec}$ )



derivatives, while the gravitational force is a function of the angular orientation ( $\phi, \theta$ ) of the airframe. Within this framework, control of airspeed, altitude rate, glide path angle, pitch and roll attitude, and normal acceleration are all considered autopilot functions, while control of heading ( $\psi$ ), altitude ( $h$ ), translational position ( $N, E$ ) or even the  $\lambda, \dot{\lambda}$  variables of this document are all considered guidance functions.

The pertinent quantities for autopilot control in this document are primarily the normal acceleration and secondarily, the airspeed. The design objectives for the autopilot are:

- a. To stabilize the short period and phugoid modes of airframe motion.
- b. To minimize the variability in normal acceleration response per unit of command input.
- c. To minimize the change in flight path angle ( $\gamma$ ) produced by a vertical wind gust.

The goal of this section is the synthesis of an autopilot concept rather than an autopilot design. No attempt is made to optimize the parameters within the concept to best satisfy the above objectives. Emphasis is placed upon qualitatively showing how each parameter impacts the various objectives and upon arriving at a conservative design framework for later optimization. The technical approach used herein relies heavily upon analog-computer simulation as a design tool. Analysis is used to explain the results of the simulation.

The simulation of this report utilizes a linearization of the airframe dynamics about a nominal condition of straight and level flight at the desired approach airspeed. The stability derivatives are estimates of a typical flying wing RPV configuration. The specific characteristics of the engine have been neglected for this effort and only the response of the airframe to a perturbation in thrust ( $\Delta T/m$ ) is considered. While perturbation aerodynamics are used throughout, most kinematic relationships were retained in their nonlinear form. The coordinate system used herein is of the body fixed variety with its origin at the center of mass of the airframe. The linear accelerations along the rotating X axis ( $\dot{U}$ ) and Z axis ( $\dot{W}$ ), and the angular accelerations about the Y axis ( $\dot{\theta}$ ) are;

$$\dot{\Delta U} = X_W \Delta W_A + X_U \Delta U - g \Delta \theta + \Delta T/m \quad (5.1)$$

$$\dot{\Delta W} = U \dot{\Delta \theta} - \Delta a = U (\dot{\Delta \theta} - \dot{\Delta \gamma}) \quad (5.2)$$

$$\ddot{\Delta \theta} = M_{\theta} \dot{\Delta \theta} + M_W \Delta W_A + M_{\delta} \Delta \delta_E \quad (5.3)$$

where

$$\Delta a = -Z_{\delta} \Delta \delta_E - Z_W \Delta W_A - Z_U \Delta U \quad (5.4)$$

$$\Delta W_A = \Delta W + \Delta W_G \quad (5.5)$$

$$U = U_0 + \Delta U \quad (5.6)$$

The quantity  $\Delta a$  is the perturbation normal acceleration of the center of mass. A normal accelerometer mounted a distance  $\ell_T$  in front of the airframe center of mass will sense.

$$\Delta a_m = \Delta a + \ell_T \ddot{\Delta \theta} \quad (5.7)$$

The guidance law functions in a closed-loop fashion on the angular error ( $\lambda$ ) hence from (2.25),

$$\dot{\lambda} = \frac{U}{R} [\gamma + \gamma_F + \lambda] \quad (5.8)$$

or

$$\dot{\lambda} = \frac{-1}{R} [-\Delta W + U (\Delta \theta + \gamma_F + \lambda)] \quad (5.9)$$

and

$$\lambda = \int_0^t \dot{\lambda} dt + \lambda_0 \quad (5.10)$$

The altitude error at any range is found from the open-loop calculation

$$h_E = R \lambda \quad (5.11)$$

so that one must be especially cautious of scaling difficulties (e.g.,  $\lambda$  and  $R$  are both approaching zero). The simulation results within this document may be suspect for perhaps the last 2 seconds of flight (170 feet) due to analog scaling difficulties with  $\lambda$  and  $R$ . This is purely a simulation difficulty and, in any event, determination of absolute errors at recovery is not the intent of this effort.

The following stability derivatives were used in the simulation:

$$\begin{aligned} X_W &= .2 \text{ (Sec}^{-1}\text{)} \\ X_u &= -.1 \text{ (Sec}^{-1}\text{)} \\ Z_W &= -3. \text{ (Sec}^{-1}\text{)} \\ Z_u &= -.75 \text{ (Sec}^{-1}\text{)} \\ Z_\delta &= -50. \text{ (Ft - Sec}^{-2}\text{)} \\ M_W &= -.1 \text{ (Ft}^{-1} \text{ - Sec}^{-1}\text{)} \\ M_\theta &= -.6 \text{ (Sec}^{-1}\text{)} \\ M_\delta &= -20. \text{ (Sec}^{-2}\text{)} \\ U_0 &= 85. \text{ (Ft - Sec}^{-1}\text{)} \end{aligned} \quad (5.12)$$

Appendix A contains the scaled analog computer simulation diagrams for equations (5.1) through (5.11).

The set of equations (4.4 through 4.7) relate how the normal acceleration ( $\Delta a$ ) should vary as a function of the range ( $R$ ), the angular error ( $\lambda$ ) relative to the desired straight line approach path of slope ( $\gamma_F$ ), and the approach ground speed ( $-R$ ). The set of equations (5.1 through 5.6) relate how the normal acceleration ( $\Delta a$ ) varies as a function of the aircraft input state ( $\Delta T/m$ ,  $\Delta \delta_E$ ,  $\Delta W_G$ ). The function of the autopilot is to manipulate  $\Delta T$  and  $\Delta \delta_E$  to cause  $\Delta a$  to follow the desired command ( $\Delta a_c$ ) in the presence of disturbances ( $\Delta W_G$ ) and at the desired speed of approach ( $-R$ ). The landing technique most familiar to all is to manipulate the elevons ( $\Delta \delta_E$ ) to control descent attitude and hence the speed of approach, and to manipulate the throttle to control rate of climb ( $\Delta \dot{h}$ ). While this technique is safe in that it avoids attempting to climb at an excessive rate (e.g., no worse than a full throttle, constant airspeed climb), it is usually unacceptable for precise approaches due to the sluggishness of the response of climb rate to a throttle input. This sluggishness impacts both the control response (e.g., how fast can a commanded ascent/descent rate be established?) as well as the gust response (e.g., how fast can a gust-induced error rate be arrested?). The more responsive technique is to manipulate the throttle ( $\Delta T$ ) to control airspeed and to manipulate the elevons ( $\Delta \delta_E$ ) to control rate of climb or more precisely normal acceleration. One must be cautious in using this technique as it is possible to transiently establish a climb rate which cannot be sustained due to insufficient power available. Additionally, if the aircraft is trimmed on the backside of the drag curve, the maneuver is not very stable (i.e., an increase in angle of attack increases the drag more than the lift.)

The behavior of normal acceleration control by elevon manipulation will be investigated by consideration of an approximate set of differential equations for which  $\Delta u$  is assumed zero. A physical view of this assumption is that the throttle is being deftly manipulated to hold  $\Delta u$  identically equal to zero regardless of variations in  $\Delta \theta$ ,  $\Delta w$ , and  $\Delta a$ .

From 5.1 through 5.6,

$$\begin{bmatrix} S & -U_0 S & 1 \\ -M_W & S(S - M_{\dot{\theta}}) & 0 \\ Z_W & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \Delta W \\ \Delta \theta \\ \Delta a \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ M_{\delta} \\ -Z_{\delta} \end{bmatrix} \Delta \delta_E \quad (5.13)$$

One may compute the transfer function relating normal acceleration to elevon deflection as,

$$\frac{\Delta a}{\Delta \delta_E} = \frac{-Z_{\delta} S^2 + Z_{\delta} M_{\dot{\theta}} S + U_0 (Z_{\delta} M_W - M_{\delta} Z_W)}{(S - M_{\dot{\theta}})(S - Z_W) - U_0 M_W} \quad (5.14)$$

Using the stability derivatives (5.12) one may assume,

$$Z_{\delta} M_W \ll M_{\delta} Z_W \quad (5.15)$$

and also

$$\frac{\Delta a}{\Delta \delta_E} = \frac{-Z_\delta S^2 + Z_\delta \dot{M}_\theta S - M_\delta Z_W U_0}{(S - \dot{M}_\theta)(S - Z_W) - U_0 M_W} \quad (5.16)$$

The denominator is the most fundamental approximation to the short period mode of aircraft motion. The steady state relationship between  $\Delta a$  and  $\Delta \delta_E$  is approximately,

$$\frac{\Delta a}{\Delta \delta_E} = \left( \frac{M_\delta}{M_W} \right) Z_W \quad (5.17)$$

As indicated, one of the main functions of the autopilot is to reduce the variability in how much acceleration is produced by a unit of command input. (NOTE: Only for the case of no feedback does one unit of command input correspond to one unit of elevon deflection.) The above relationship (5.17) implicitly indicates the primary source of this variability, being the change in  $M_W$  produced by variations in the location of the aircraft center of mass. Figure 14 depicts the behavior of the approximate equations (5.13) in response to an elevon input, for two values of  $M_W$ . The use of feedback to reduce this variability is fundamental. The quantity to be used as the feedback signal is, of course, the normal acceleration itself.

In addition to reducing the variability of the normal acceleration response, the use of an acceleration feedback causes a more oscillatory short period mode. Assume for now that one may neglect the effects of elevon lift ( $Z_\delta$ ) in (5.13) and,

$$\Delta \delta_E = K_a (\Delta a_c - \Delta a) \quad (5.18)$$

Combining (5.13) and (5.18) one finds,

$$\frac{\Delta a}{\Delta a_c} = \frac{-U_0 M_\delta Z_W K_a}{(S - \dot{M}_\theta)(S - Z_W) - U_0 (M_W + M_\delta Z_W K_a)} \quad (5.19)$$

Examination of the denominator of (5.19) shows that the  $K_a$  feedback has the same effect on the short period mode as does the "aerodynamic spring" or static stability derivative ( $M_W$ ). Increases in the gain of the normal acceleration feedback will eventually have to be dampened by a pitch rate feedback. The appearance of the  $K_a$  term in the numerator is due to the acceleration error ( $\Delta a_c - \Delta a$ ) formulation of (5.18). This is, of course, fundamental to achieving the desired relatively invariant acceleration response. In the steady state,

$$\frac{\Delta a}{\Delta a_c} = \frac{-U_0 M_\delta Z_W K_a}{\dot{M}_\theta Z_W - U_0 M_W - U_0 M_\delta Z_W K_a} \quad (5.20)$$

For large  $K_a$ , variations in  $M_W$  have the desired negligible effect on the  $\Delta a$  response per unit of command input ( $\Delta a_c$ ). Using  $K_a = .007$  radians per feet per second<sup>2</sup>, expression (5.20) becomes,

$$\frac{\Delta a}{\Delta a_c} = \frac{36}{1.8 + 8.5 + 36} = .78 \quad (5.21)$$



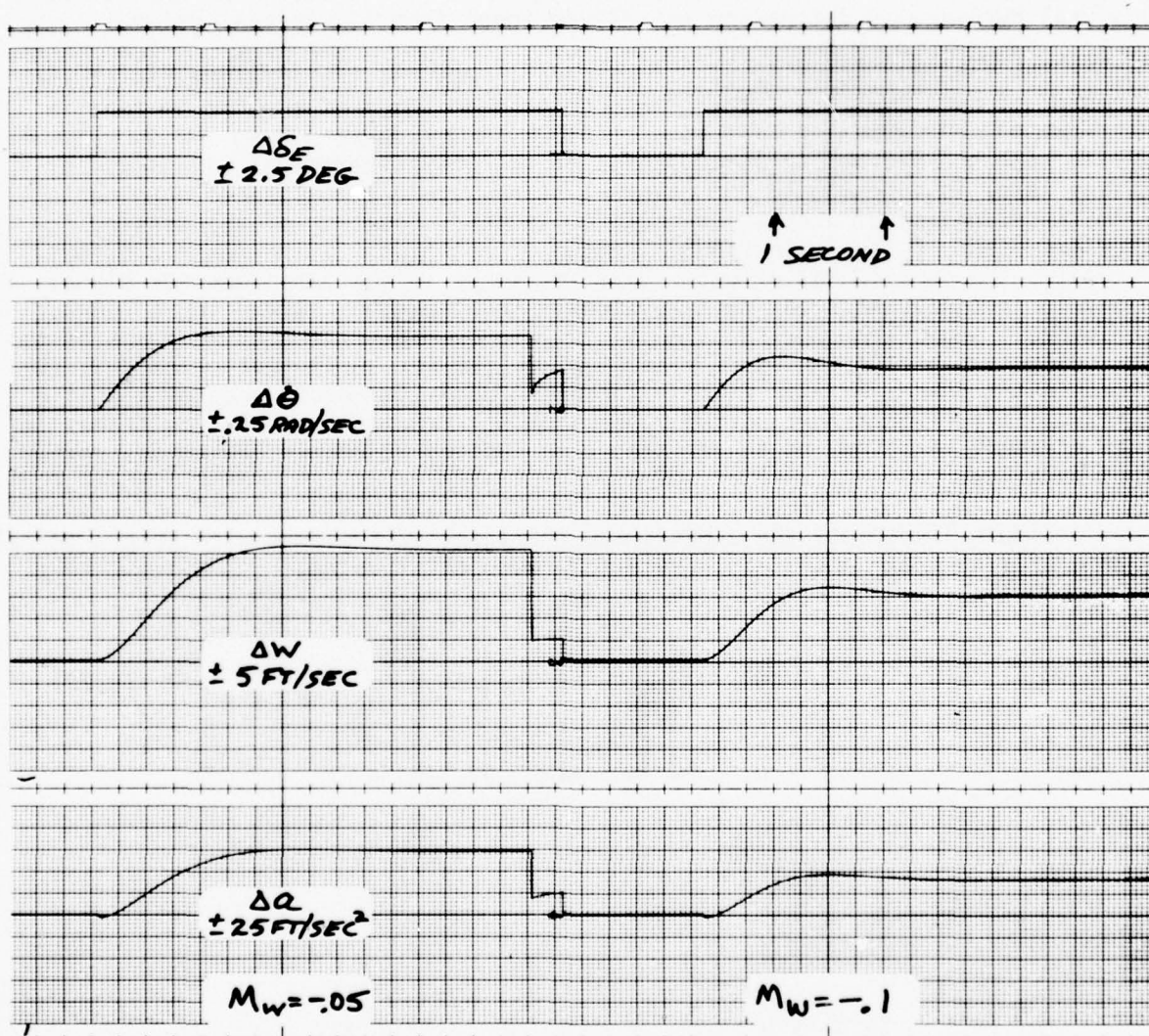


Figure 14. Short period response ( $\Delta l' = 0$ ) to a step elevator input

Figure 15 demonstrates (1) the relative invariance of the  $\Delta a$  response for two values of  $M_w(2)$ , the roughly 20 percent difference between the commanded acceleration ( $\Delta a_c$ ) and the normal acceleration ( $\Delta a$ ), and (3) the more oscillatory short period mode caused by the acceleration feedback increasing the short period frequency of oscillation ( $W_{sp} = 6.8$  rad/sec versus the unaugmented  $W_{sp} = 3.2$  rad/sec). The value of  $\Delta a_c$  in Figure 15 was chosen to produce the same initial elevon deflection as in Figure 14 ( $\Delta \delta_E = 1$  degree). The decreased steady state acceleration achieved in Figure 15 is the result of the feedback signal dynamically decreasing the elevon input from its initial value.

The feedback actually used in Figure 15 was not the acceleration of the center of mass ( $\Delta a$ ), but rather the acceleration ( $\Delta a_m$ ) of a point  $l_T$  feet in front of the center of mass. The initial jump in  $\Delta a$  is due to a lift upon the elevons ( $Z_\delta$ ), neglected in the above treatment. The sense of this force is opposite to the eventual steady state and is hence detrimental to the stability of a  $\Delta a$  to  $\Delta \delta_E$  control system. Location of the sensing accelerometer at the instantaneous center of rotation ( $l_T = M_\delta / Z_\delta = 2.5$  feet) negates the detrimental effect. Note in Figure 15 that the feedback signal  $\Delta a_m$  is initially zero for  $l_T = 2.5$  feet. For the same command input ( $\Delta a_c$ ), Figure 16 shows the amplification of the elevon lift effect by feedback of the acceleration of the center of mass ( $\Delta a_m = \Delta a$ ). For sufficient gain ( $K_a$ ), the nonminimum phase behavior of this feedback ( $\Delta a_m = \Delta a$ ) would lead to a static instability of the short period mode. For all remaining simulation traces in this report, the sensing accelerometer is located at the instantaneous center of rotation.

Figure 17 depicts the approximate short period response with both a normal acceleration ( $\Delta a_m$ ) and a pitch rate ( $\Delta \theta$ ) feedback. Using,

$$\begin{bmatrix} S & -U_0 S & 1 \\ -M_w & S(S - M_\theta^*) & 0 \\ Z_w & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \Delta W \\ \Delta \theta \\ \Delta a_m \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ M_\delta \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \Delta \delta_E \quad (5.22)$$

and,

$$\Delta \delta_E = K_a (\Delta a_c - \Delta a_m) - K_\theta^* \Delta \theta \quad (5.23)$$

one finds,

$$\frac{\Delta a_m}{\Delta a_c} = \frac{-U_0 M_\delta Z_w K_a}{(S - M_\theta^* + K_\theta^* M_\delta)(S - Z_w) - U_0 (M_w + M_\delta K_a Z_w)} \quad (5.24)$$

Not only does the pitch rate feedback act to dampen the more oscillatory short period mode, but it also increases the steady state error between  $\Delta a_m$  and  $\Delta a_c$ . Consider the steady state of 5.24

$$\frac{\Delta a_m}{\Delta a_c} = \frac{-U_0 M_\delta Z_w K_a}{Z_w (M_\theta^* - K_\theta^* M_\delta) - U_0 (M_w + M_\delta K_a Z_w)} \quad (5.25)$$

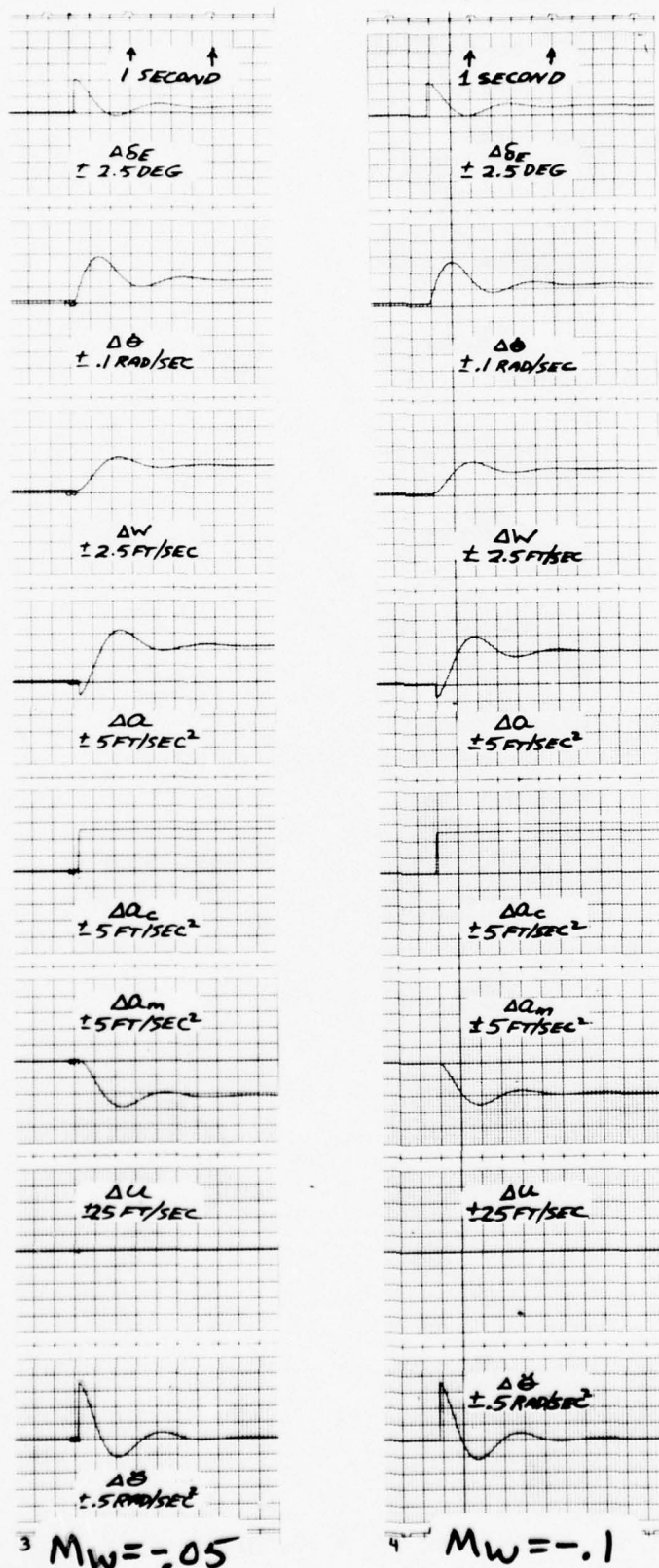


Figure 15. Short period response ( $K_a = -0.007$ ) to a step command input ( $\Delta a_c$ )

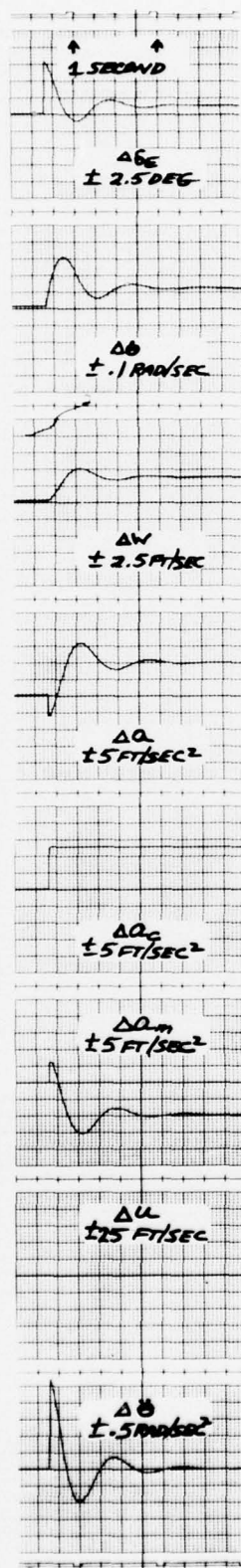


Figure 16. Short period response ( $K_a = -0.007$ ) to a  $\Delta a_c$  step with  $\beta_T = 0$



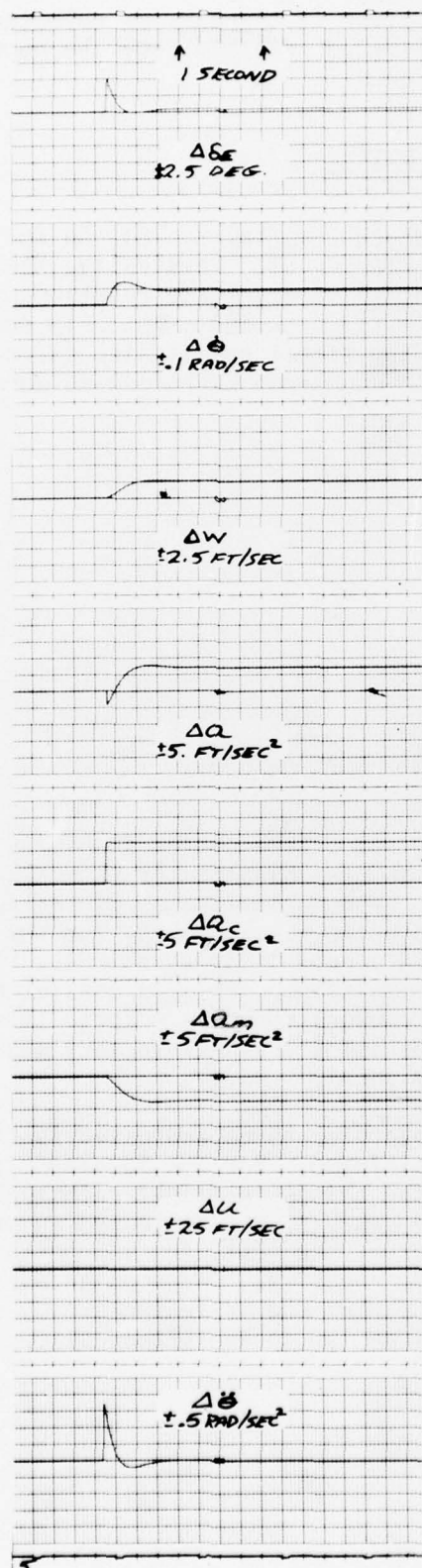


Figure 17. Short period response ( $K_a = -0.007$ ,  $K_{\theta} = -0.35$ ) to a  $\Delta a_c$  step

Using the stability derivatives (5.12) and the selected feedback gains ( $K_a = - .007 \text{ rad/ft/sec}^2$  and  $K_{\dot{\theta}} = - .35 \text{ rad/rad/sec}$ ) the numerical factors of the steady state relationship are,

$$\frac{\Delta a_m}{\Delta a_c} = \frac{36.}{1.8 + 21. + 8.5 + 36} = .53 \quad (5.26)$$

For pure acceleration feedback ( $\Delta a_m/\Delta a_c = .78$ ) and for pitch rate dampened acceleration feedback,  $\Delta a_m/\Delta a_c = .53$ . Physically, the additional error is developed because a prescribed steady state relationship exists between normal acceleration and pitch rate ( $\Delta a = u_0 \Delta \dot{\theta}$ ). Not only does the pitch rate contribute a transient dampening effect but it also introduces predictable steady state effects. This can be countered by a feed-forward path in the autopilot (Figure 18) from which,

$$\Delta \delta_E = K_a (\Delta a_c - \Delta a) + K_{\dot{\theta}} (\Delta \dot{\theta}_c - \Delta \dot{\theta}) \quad (5.27)$$

where

$$\Delta \dot{\theta}_c = \frac{\Delta a_c}{u_0} \quad (5.28)$$

Equations (5.27) and (5.28) may be combined to obtain,

$$\Delta \delta_E = K_a \left[ \left( 1 + \frac{K_{\dot{\theta}}}{K_a u_0} \right) \Delta a_c - \Delta a \right] - K_{\dot{\theta}} \Delta \dot{\theta} \quad (5.29)$$

The feed-forward path does not affect system stability and is equivalent to multiplying the input command  $\Delta a_c$  by a factor  $(1 + K_{\dot{\theta}}/K_a u_0)$ . For the chosen gains and approach speed, the numerical value of the factor is 1.59. The overall idealized relationship between  $\Delta a_m$  and  $\Delta a_c$  for the pitch-rate-dampened, acceleration feedback would become ( $\Delta a_m/\Delta a_c = .85$ ). The feed-forward feature was not included in this simulation. This is consistent with the intent to maintain a conservative framework for this effort. If the performance of the coupled guidance/control dynamics are satisfactory with  $\Delta a_m \sim .5 \Delta a_c$  then the design concept is relatively sound.

The next autopilot objective to be addressed is the wind gust ( $\Delta W_G$ ) response of the stabilized airframe. For the landing mission, the gust characteristics of interest is the change in flight path angle ( $\gamma$ ) produced by the angle of attack gust ( $\alpha_G = \Delta W_G/u_0$ ). As indicated in section 3, if attitude is maintained ( $\Delta \theta = 0$ ) during the gust, the change in  $\Delta \gamma$  is precisely  $\Delta \alpha_G$ . For a statically stable ( $M_w$  negative), unaugmented airframe, the natural tendency is to rotate into the wind and drive the steady state angle of attack ( $\Delta \alpha_A = \Delta W_A/u_0$ ) to zero. That is, in the steady state,

$$\Delta \theta = \Delta \gamma - \Delta \alpha_G \quad (5.30)$$

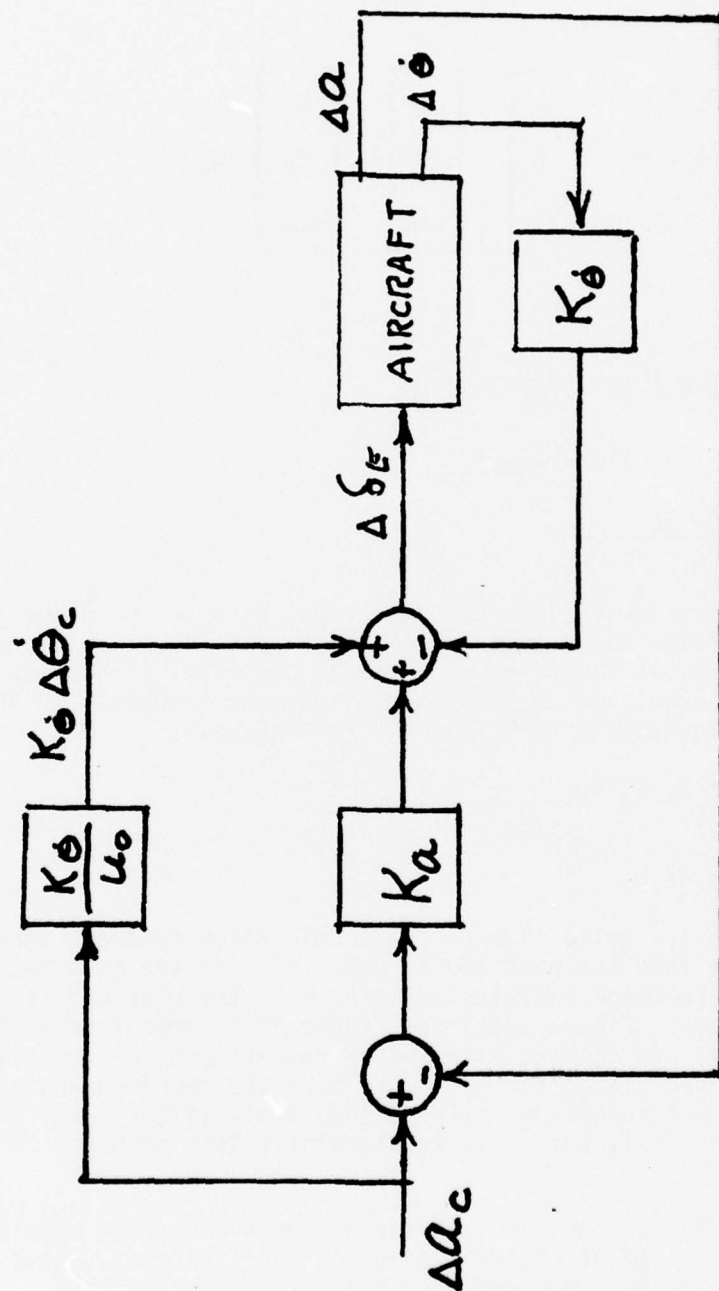


Figure 18. Acceleration autopilot with feed forward path

or

$$\frac{\Delta Y}{\Delta \alpha_G} = 1 + \frac{\Delta \theta}{\Delta \alpha_G} \quad (5.31)$$

From

$$\begin{bmatrix} S & -U_0 S & 1 \\ -M_W & S(S - M_{\dot{\theta}}) & 0 \\ Z_W & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \Delta W \\ \Delta \theta \\ \Delta a_m \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ M_W \\ -Z_W \end{bmatrix} \Delta \alpha_G \quad (5.32)$$

then

$$\frac{\Delta \theta}{\Delta \alpha_G} = \frac{M_W U_0}{(S - M_{\dot{\theta}})(S - Z_W) - U_0 M_W} \quad (5.33)$$

which in the steady state equals,

$$\frac{\Delta \theta}{\Delta \alpha_G} = \frac{M_W U_0}{Z_W M_{\dot{\theta}} - U_0 M_W} \quad (5.34)$$

For the stability derivatives of 5.12, then  $\Delta \theta / \Delta \alpha_G = .9$  in the steady state. The response of the basic airframe to a downgust ( $\Delta \alpha_G = -3.4$  degrees or  $\Delta W_G = -5$  ft/sec) is shown in Figure 19a and confirms expression (5.34). As seen earlier, normal acceleration and pitch rate feedbacks to the elevons may be treated as increments to  $M_W$  and  $M_{\dot{\theta}}$ , respectively.

$$\begin{aligned} M_W' &= M_W + K_a M_{\delta} Z_W \\ M_{\dot{\theta}}' &= M_{\dot{\theta}} - K_{\dot{\theta}} M_{\delta} \end{aligned} \quad (5.35)$$

The conclusions are quite clear. The acceleration feedback increases the tendency to rotate into the wind and is beneficial to the gust response, while the pitch rate feedback inhibits rotation into the wind and is detrimental to the gust response. Figure 19(b) and Figure 20(a) demonstrate these individual characteristics. In keeping with the aforementioned conservative design approach, the chosen values for  $K_a$  and  $K_{\dot{\theta}}$  make the combined augmented system somewhat more gust sensitive in the steady state (Figure 20b) than the basic airframe (Figure 19a), but still substantially less than the  $\Delta \theta = 0$  analysis of section 3.

The autopilot discussion thus far has been concerned with control of the short period or angle of attack motions of the airframe. The discussion and simulation results have proceeded on the assumption that thrust variations of the engine maintain  $\Delta U$  identically equal to zero. In a similar fashion, phugoid airframe motions can be visualized by the assumption of  $\Delta W = 0$ . This is equivalent to the airframe having a quick stable short period mode so that angle of attack motions may be neglected. The phugoid mode is dominated by variations in the X and Z forces due to  $\Delta U$  and  $\Delta \theta$  perturbations.



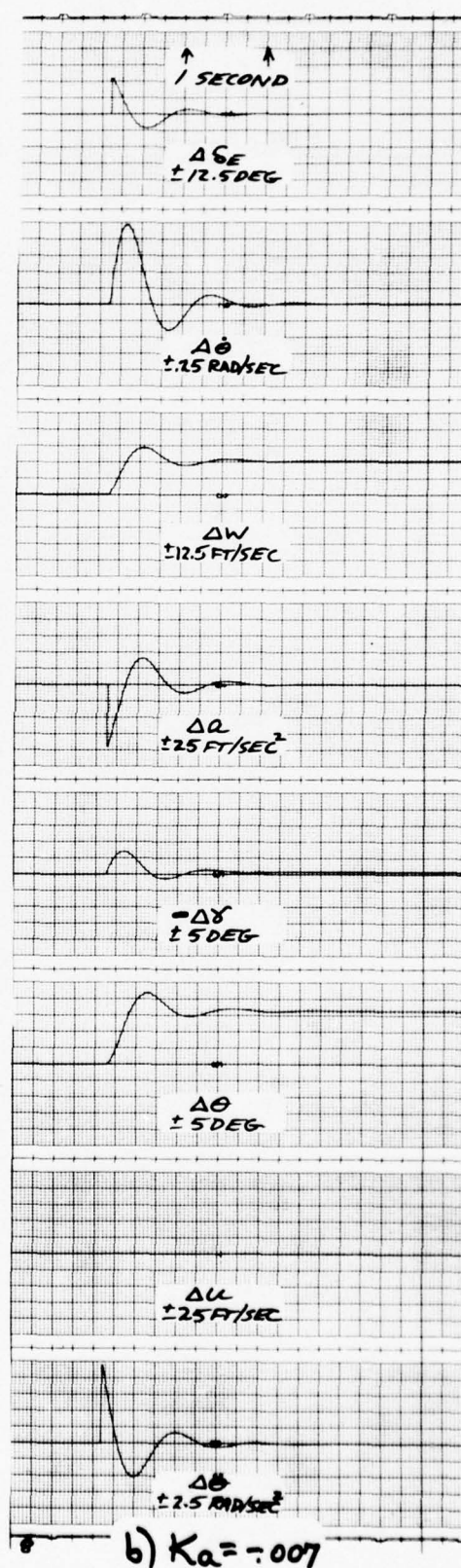
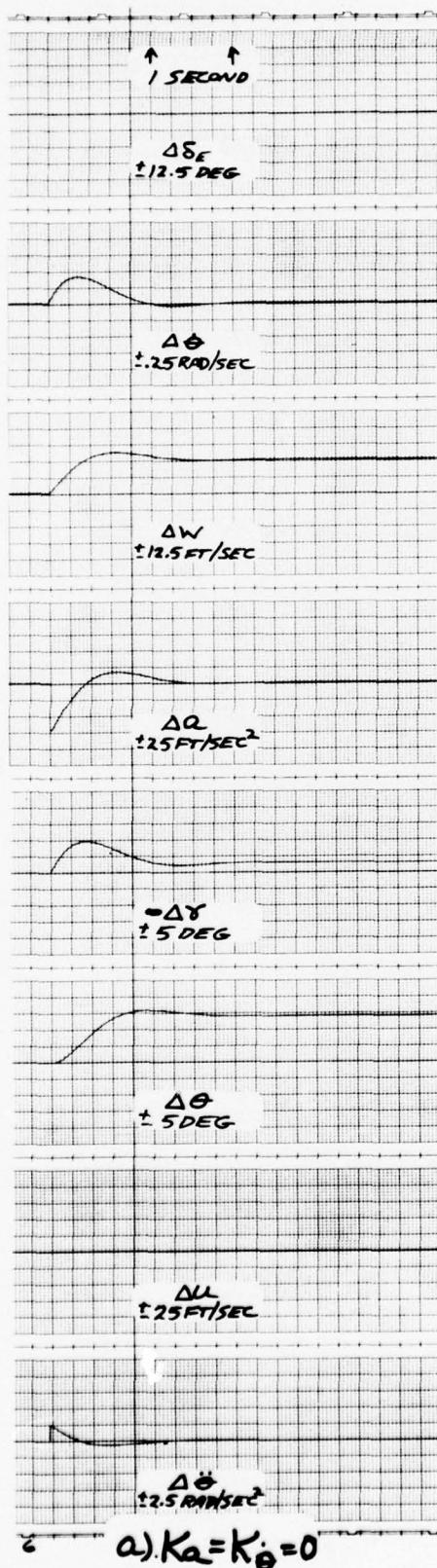


Figure 19. Short period gust response ( $\Delta W_G = -0.5 \text{ ft/sec}$ )

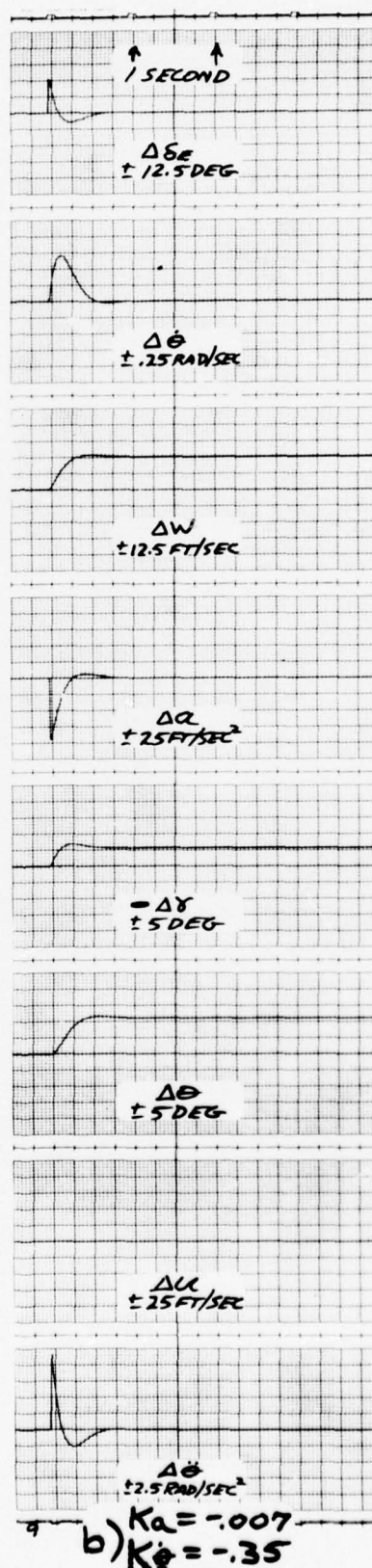
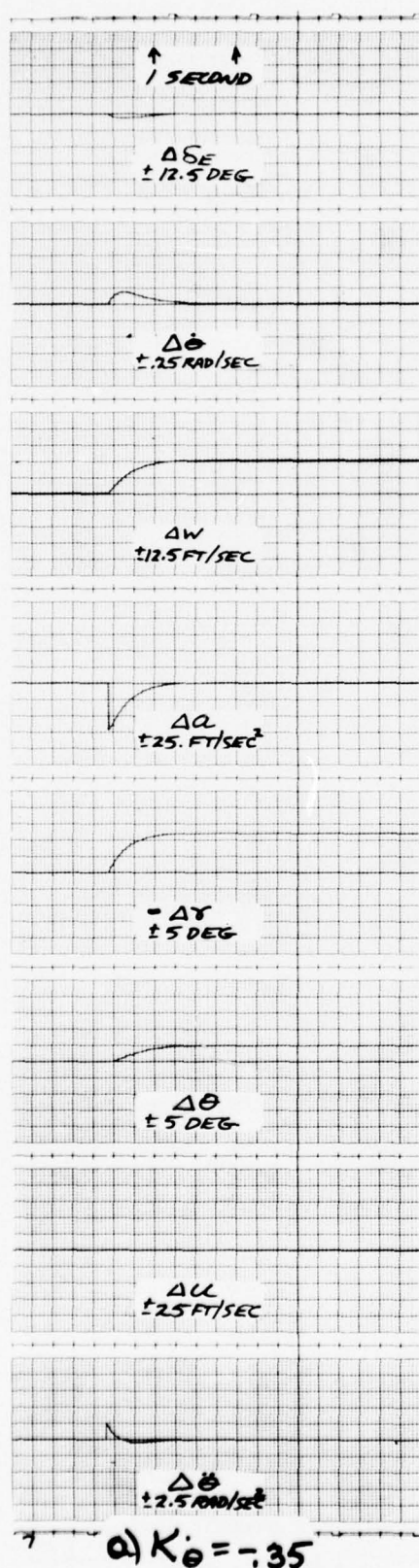


Figure 20. Short period gust response ( $\Delta W_G = 5 \text{ ft/sec}$ )

$$\begin{bmatrix} S - X_u & g \\ Z_u & S U_0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \Delta U \\ \Delta \theta \end{bmatrix} = 0 \quad (5.36)$$

or

$$S^2 - X_u S - \frac{Z_u g}{U_0} = 0 \quad (5.37)$$

The lightly dampened approximation to the phugoid mode is shown in Figure 21. The  $\Delta W = 0$  constraint was approximated on the simulation trace by increasing  $M_w$  (-1. versus -.1). The most direct method of damping the phugoid is to increase the drag of the airframe. Modulation of the thrust of the engine is equivalent but too small in magnitude to be useful. Deployment of drag brakes would permit steeper descents as well as dampen the phugoid but this approach is not considered here. The usual means of increasing phugoid damping is to feed low frequency pitch attitude information back to the elevons. (Gust response considerations preclude high frequency pitch attitude feedback). Because the RPV mission tends to require extended periods of circling, a vertical gyro is not usually part of the RPV sensor package and low frequency filtering of pitch rate to obtain quasi-attitude information is undesirable because of the filter initialization difficulties which are typical of such implementations. The approach taken here, therefore, is to rely on the  $\Delta a$ ,  $\Delta \theta$  autopilot feedbacks as well as the low frequency  $\lambda$ ,  $\dot{\lambda}$  guidance feedbacks to maintain control of the phugoid motions.

Figure 22 is a simulation trace of the complete airframe motions (5.1 to 5.12) in response to a 5 ft/sec wind gust ( $\Delta W_G$ ). The phugoid mode has less damping than the classical phugoid ( $\Delta W = 0$ ) due to coupling of the  $\Delta W$  motions ( $M_w = -.1$ ) with the  $\Delta U$ ,  $\Delta \theta$  motions. The period of the phugoid motion ( $\omega_p^{-1} = 13$  seconds) is relatively unaffected by the  $\Delta W$  degree of freedom. The incorporation of a normal acceleration feedback affects both the short period and the phugoid modes of motion. As indicated in Figure 23, the damping of the phugoid mode is more like the classical phugoid case (Figure 21). The acceleration feedback has quickened the short period mode and made the  $\Delta W = 0$  approximation of Figure 21 more valid than for the unaugmented airframe case of Figure 22. Another effect of the feedback is to convert the phugoid motions into lower frequency ( $\omega_p^{-1} = 28$  seconds), slightly higher amplitude motions. This is beneficial as the lower frequency behavior is more amenable to stabilization by the guidance feedbacks ( $\lambda, \dot{\lambda}$ ) on approach. A pure pitch rate feedback has the same low frequency effects upon phugoid stability as does the normal acceleration feedback (e.g.,  $\Delta a \approx U_0 \Delta \theta$ ). An important difference, however, is the magnitude of the excitation of the phugoid motion. As can be seen in a comparison of Figures 23 and 24, the  $\Delta \theta$  induced by the initial wind gust is much greater for the  $\Delta a$  feedback than for  $\Delta \theta$  case. It is apparent that the price to be paid for the  $\Delta W_G$  gust alleviation character of the  $\Delta a$  feedback, is increased excitation of the phugoid mode. The combined effects of the  $\Delta \theta$  and  $\Delta a$  feedbacks are shown in Figure 25.

The coupled set of perturbation equations (5.1 through 5.6) together with the stability derivatives (5.12) are stable. As a result of being stable, when these equations are perturbed from their trim value by a step wind gust ( $\Delta W_G$ ), the aircraft will eventually return to this trimmed aerodynamic state



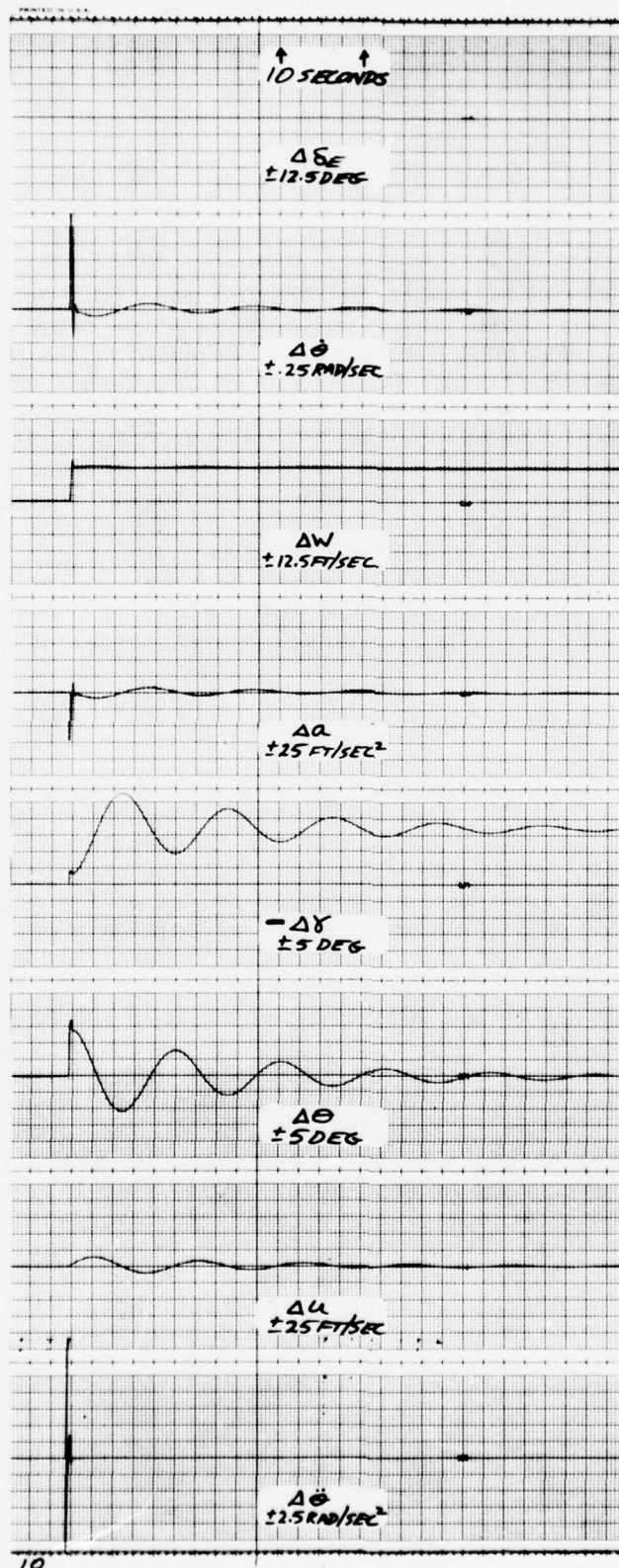


Figure 21. Classical phugoid ( $\Delta W = 0$ ) response to a gust input ( $\Delta W_G = -5 \text{ ft/sec}$ )



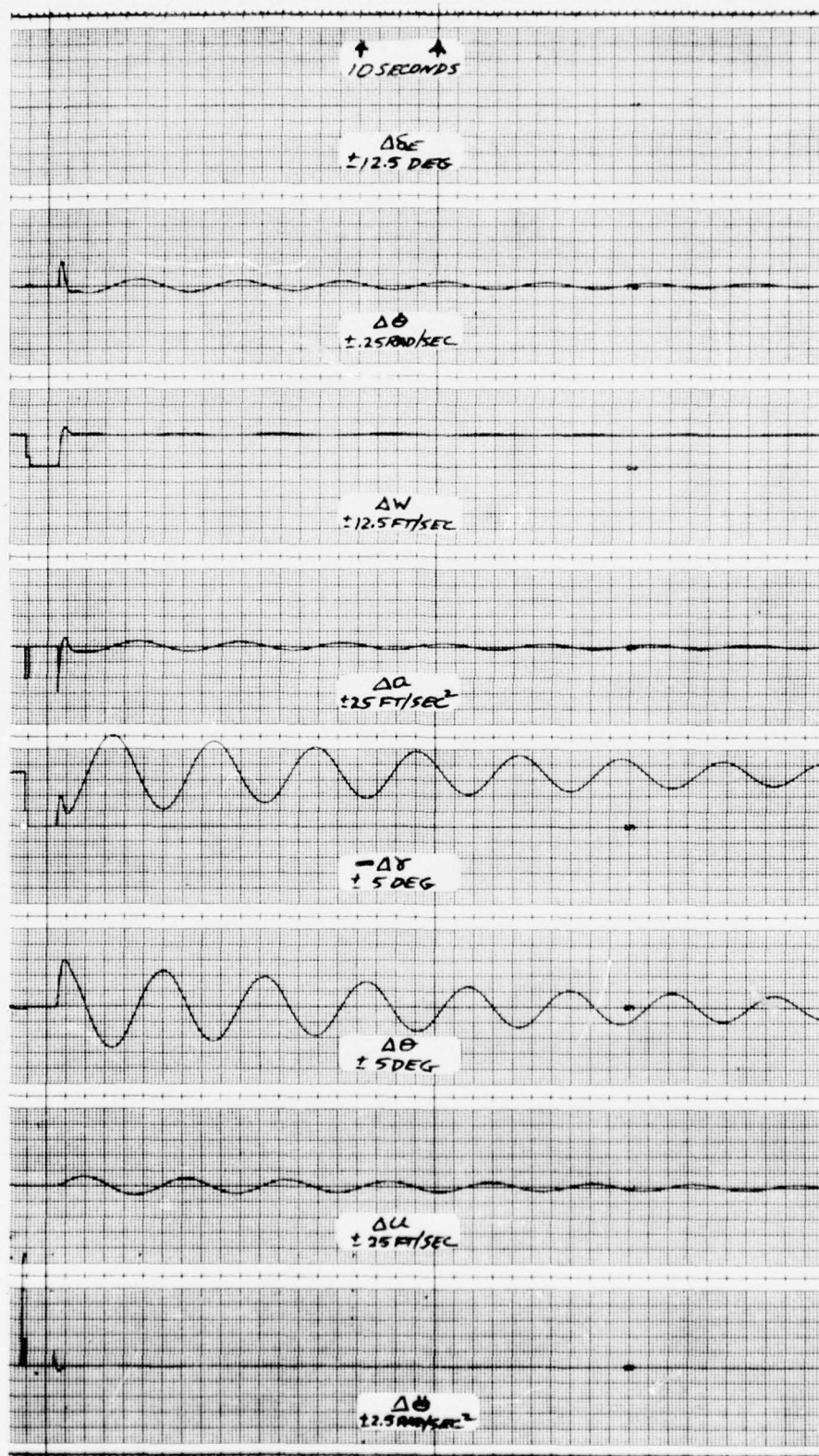


Figure 22. Coupled  $\Delta W$ ,  $\Delta \theta$ ,  $\Delta U$  response to a gust input  
( $\Delta W_G = -5$  ft/sec)

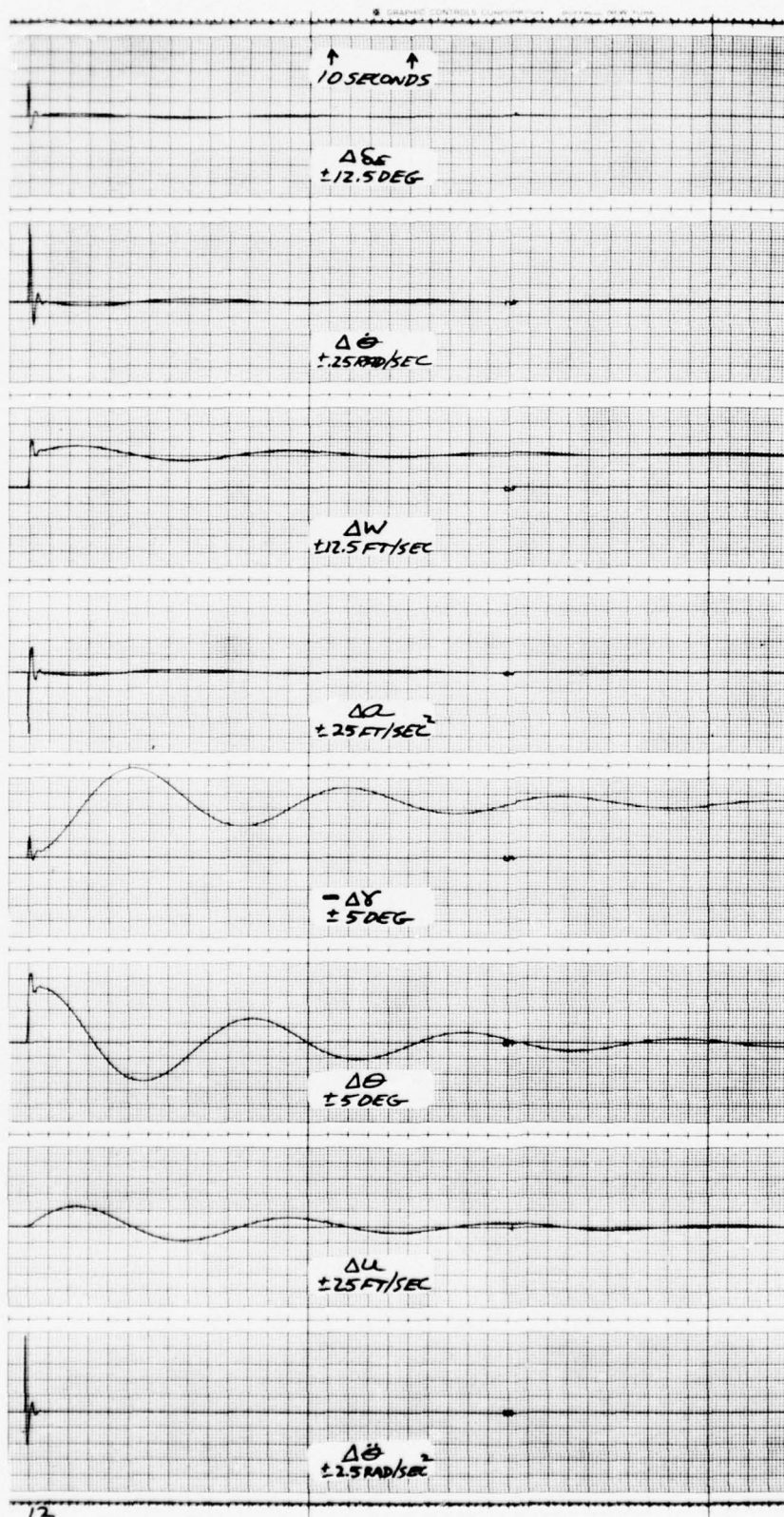


Figure 23. Augmented response ( $K_a = -0.007$  to a gust input ( $\Delta W_G = 5 \text{ ft/sec}$ )

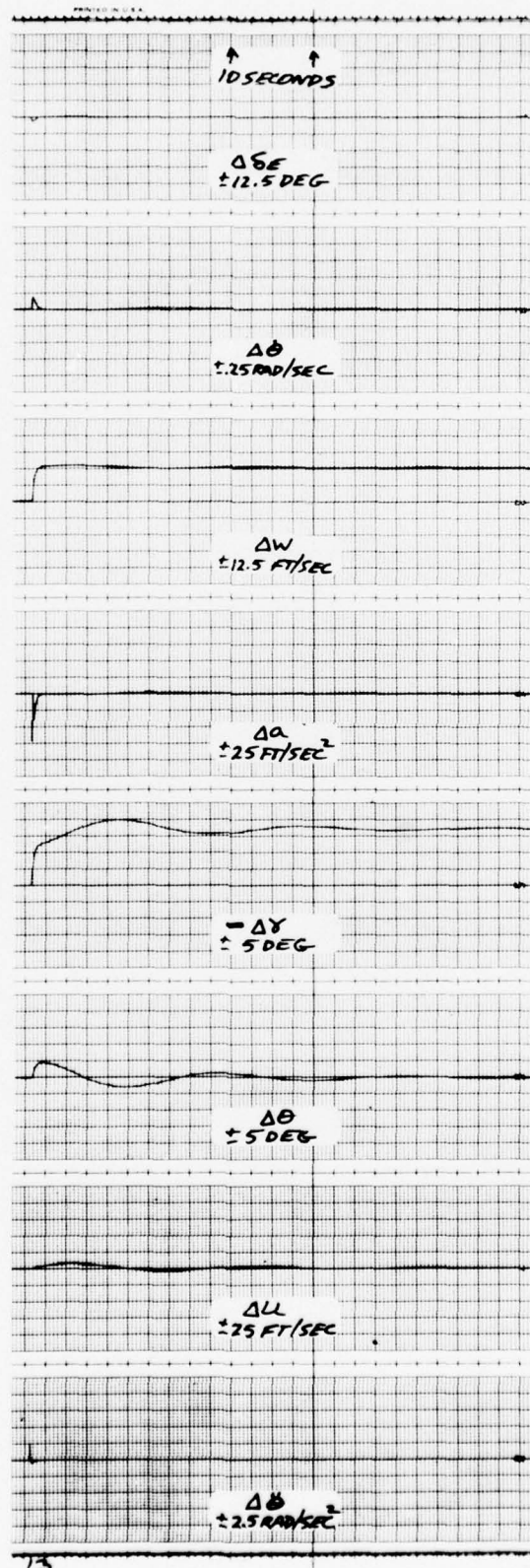


Figure 24. Augmented response ( $K_{\theta} = -0.35$ ) to a gust input



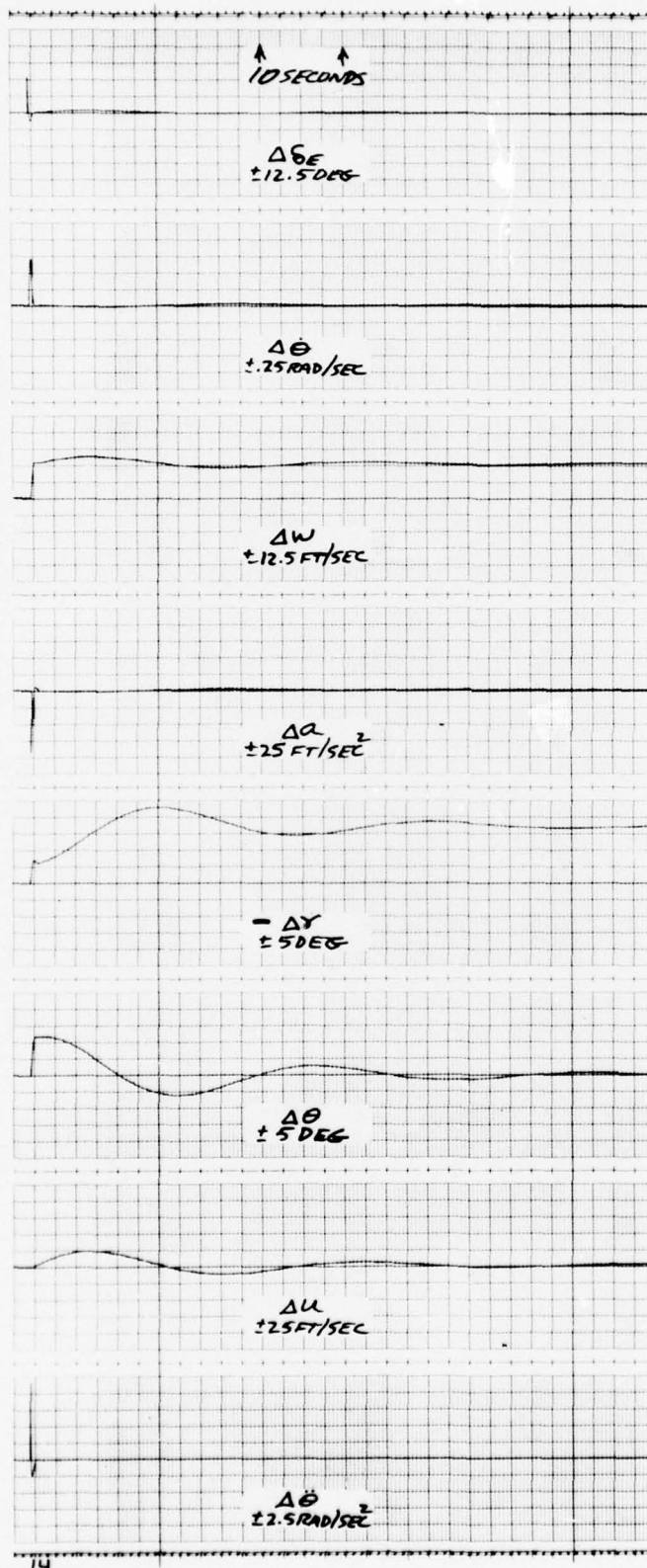


Figure 25. Augmented response ( $K_a = -0.007$ ,  $K_\theta = -0.35$ ) to a gust input



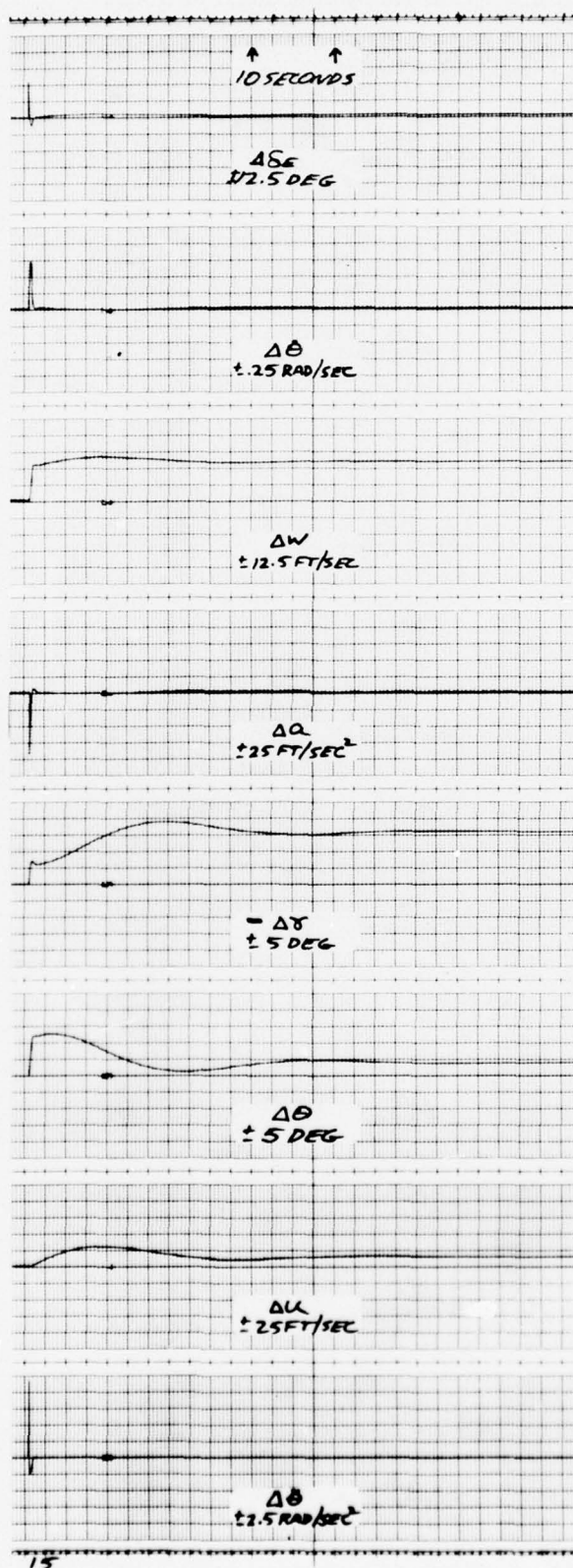


Figure 26.  $\Delta W_G$  gust response ( $K_a = -0.007$ ,  $K_\theta = -0.35$ ,  $K_I = -0.0007$ )

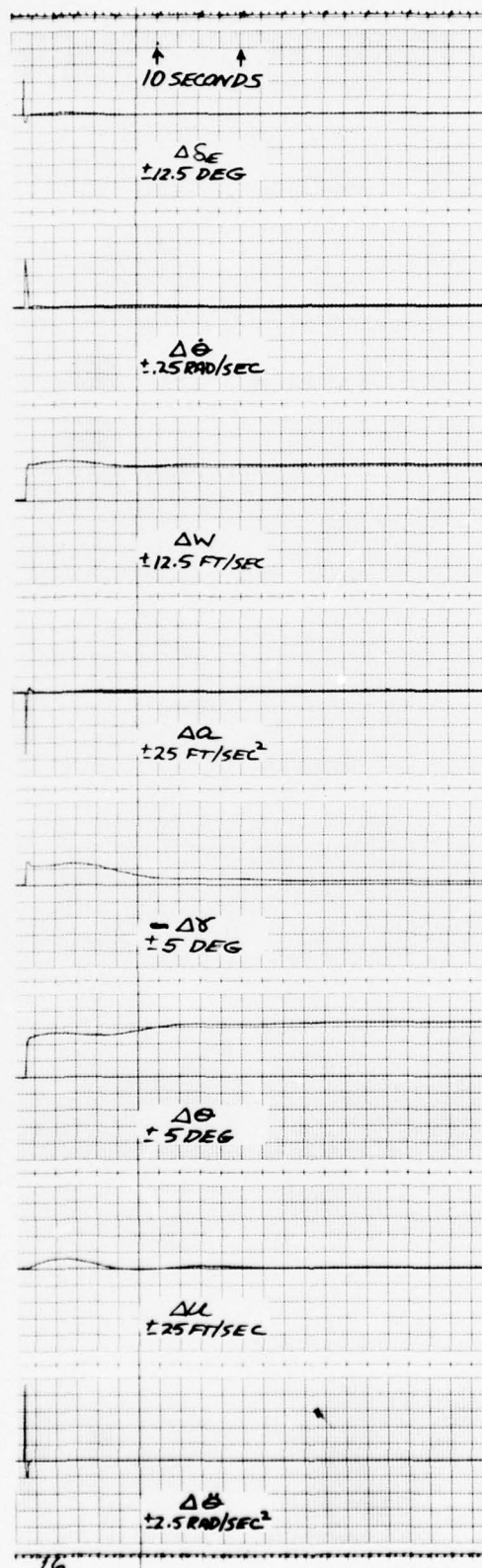


Figure 27. Autopilot/airframe  $\Delta W_G$  gust response (Appendix A, Figure A-4)

( $\Delta W = \Delta W_A = \Delta \theta = 0$ ). This behavior is clearly shown in Figure 22 where one should recall that  $\Delta W_A = \Delta W + \Delta W_G$  and that  $\Delta \gamma$  being nonzero is consistent with the stated aerodynamic trim of the aircraft. The incorporation of an autopilot may or may not modify the behavior described above. The autopilot feedback (5.23) is transient in nature so that the stabilized airframe (Figure 25) also returns to the original aerodynamic trim. If the autopilot incorporates a pitch trim integrator such as,

$$\Delta \delta_E = K_a (\Delta a_c - \Delta a) - K_{\dot{\theta}} \Delta \dot{\theta} + K_I \int_0^t (\Delta a_c - \Delta a) dt \quad (5.38)$$

then the long term behavior of the aircraft is modified as  $\Delta \delta_E$  is nonzero in the steady state (Figure 26). It is the opinion of this author that caution be exercised in the use of low frequency feedbacks in a necessarily responsive autopilot channel. Error or trim integrators such as 5.38 are the least offensive form of these type feedbacks but the general feeling still applies. The feedbacks can have a beneficial effect on the long term stability of the airframe (e.g., note the increased phugoid damping of Figure 26 compared with Figure 25), but such effects can also be obtained by guidance phenomena ( $\lambda$ ,  $\dot{\lambda}$ , etc.). To retain the conservative framework, expression 5.38 is used as the acceleration autopilot feedback for the remainder of the simulation traces (see Appendix A for the complete autopilot representation). Figure 27 depicts the gust response of the complete autopilot/airframe system.

## 6. COUPLED GUIDANCE AND CONTROL FUNCTIONS

The approach taken thus far has been to treat the guidance function and the control function in an independent fashion. This does not imply that the potential of coupling between the guidance dynamics and the control dynamics has been ignored. The near-field gain limiting was incorporated into the guidance law to achieve compatibility between the guidance dynamics and the autopilot/airframe dynamics. The simulation effort will be completed by the merging of these two functions.

Figure 28 is similar to Figure 13 with the exception that the commanded normal acceleration ( $\Delta a_c$ ) and the commanded airspeed ( $\Delta U_c$ ) are filtered by the airframe/autopilot dynamics before computation of the guidance kinematics ( $\lambda$ ,  $\dot{\lambda}$ ). Since the guidance gain is not limited ( $R_m = 0$ ), the expected near-field flight path instability is produced. For the autopilot implementation of Figure A-4, the range at which the instability occurs is on the order of 300 feet for the chosen  $n = 15$ . One might now expect to see a stability analysis of the guidance law (4.4) and the  $\Delta U = 0$  approximation to the stabilized airframe (5.19). Unfortunately, this stability analysis is not so easy. The system of equations depicted by Figure 28 is linear, but due to the time-varying coefficients produced by the constantly decreasing range, an analytical treatment is really quite difficult and fortunately unnecessary. The near-field gain control eliminates the analytic difficulties by conversion of the measured angular information ( $\lambda$ ,  $\dot{\lambda}$ ) to its equivalent ( $h_E$ ,  $\dot{h}_E$ ) and stabilization of the system gain at the  $R_M$  value. More importantly, proper adjustment of the gain control will be seen to eliminate the instability along with the associated analytic difficulties.

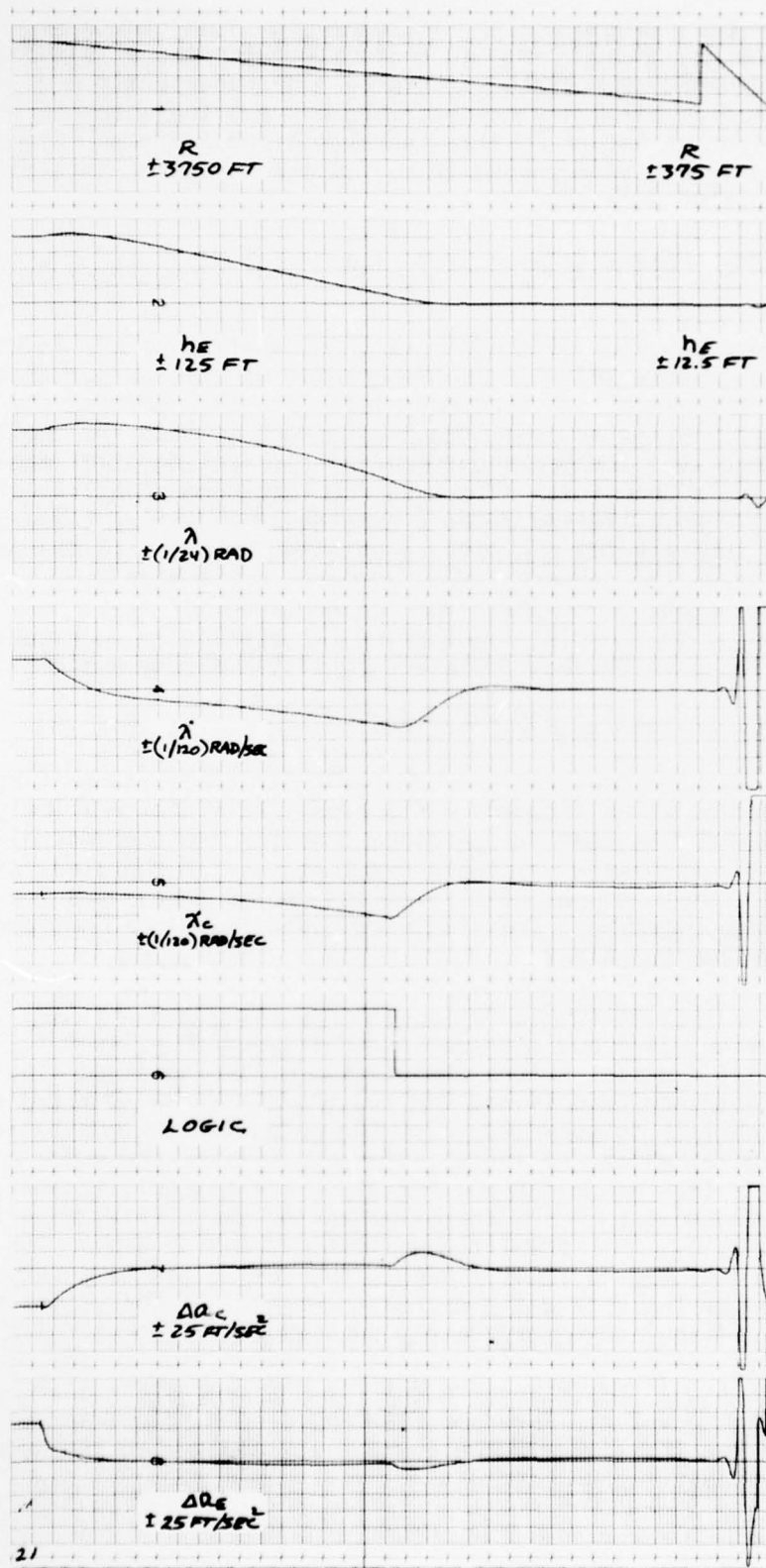


Figure 28. Coupled guidance response ( $n = 15$ ,  $R_m = 0$ ,  $\gamma_L = 8^\circ$ ,  $\gamma_F = 4^\circ$ )



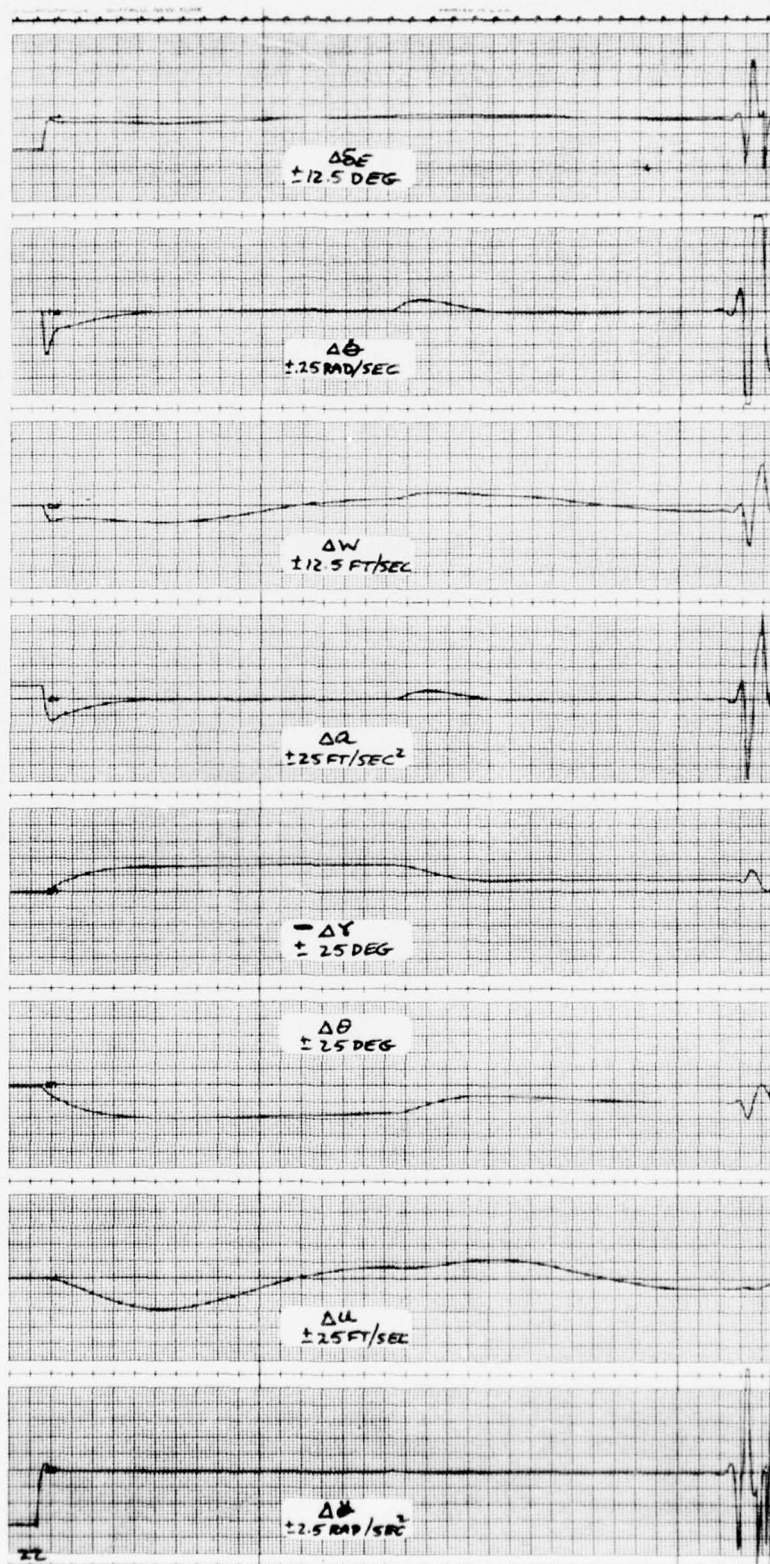


Figure 29. Coupled control response ( $n = 15$ ,  $R_m = 0$ ,  $\gamma_L = 8^\circ$ ,  $\gamma_F = 4^\circ$ )

Figures 30 and 31 depict the gust response of the coupled system with gain limiting ( $R_m = 300$  ft). As in Section 3, the system is perturbed ( $R_D = 600$  ft) from its initial trim on the glide slope. The instability is still in evidence though its severity is bounded by the gain limiting ( $R_m = 300$  feet to touchdown). To provide some gain margin for the autopilot configuration of Figure A-4, the design value for the gain parameter ( $R_m$ ) was chosen to be 1,000 feet.

The coupled response of the design configuration ( $n = 15$ ,  $R_m = 1,000$  ft) is given in Figures 32 and 33. The idealized guidance response ( $\Delta a = \Delta a_c$ ) was previously given in Figure 13. The most apparent difference between the two figures is the low frequency drift ( $\Delta a_c$ ,  $\Delta a_e$ ) of Figure 32. This phenomenon is the result of the trim integrators previously mentioned and more quantitatively depicted in the  $\Delta \delta_E$  trace of Figure 33. Comparison of the  $\Delta a$  and  $\Delta a_c$  traces demonstrate that a successful approach is not dependent upon holding  $\Delta a_e$  near zero. As a matter of interest, the reader should also note the effective control of descending flight path angle ( $|\gamma| \leq 8^\circ$ ) by command limiting of  $\lambda$ .

Figures 34 through 37 depict the coupled guidance and control responses of the design configuration to a  $\Delta W_G$  gust input ( $R_D = 600$  and 300 feet, respectively). In both cases, the peak  $\Delta h_E$  was one (1) foot. The invariant  $\Delta h_E$  perturbation is consistent with the concept of a constant gain system for all ranges less than  $R_m = 1,000$  feet. The worst case computations of Section 3 ( $\Delta \theta = 0$ ) indicated a peak  $\Delta h_E$  of 1.5 feet (e.g., See Figures 11 and 12). The difference is due to the gust alleviation properties of the stabilized airframe.

## 7. SUMMARY OF CONCLUSIONS

The efforts of the preceding six sections have tried to indicate a suggested direction for the design of an RPV approach guidance and control system. Every effort was made to maintain a conservative framework for the nominal design configuration developed within those six sections. As a result, it is felt that the performance of the concept can be significantly improved by a detailed stability and control analysis, particularly in the near-field region with the intent of selecting optimum values for the parameters ( $R_m$ ,  $n$ ,  $K_a$ ,  $K_\theta$ ) for use with a specific RPV airframe/engine design. The more pertinent results of the effort of the first six sections follow.

a. An approach guidance law was developed which was felt to have application to the general problem of IFR landing of aircraft of any type. For continuous measurement of the angular deviation of the aircraft from the glide path ( $\gamma$ ), its time rate of change ( $\dot{\lambda}$ ) and the horizontal range ( $R$ ) of the aircraft from the landing site, the guidance law was shown to have inherent stability even as the range approaches zero. To achieve this inherent stability, the bandwidth of the guidance law is required to vary as  $R^{-1}$ .

b. To compensate for the effects of lags in the response of the airframe to the guidance law demands, a near-field gain control was incorporated. This gain control was shown to limit the bandwidth of the guidance law for  $R \leq R_m$  to a value compatible with the airframe's ability to respond. The guidance law bandwidth must also be compatible with the data rate and noise spectra associated with measurement of  $\lambda$ ,  $\dot{\lambda}$ , and  $R$ . In many applications, a direct measurement

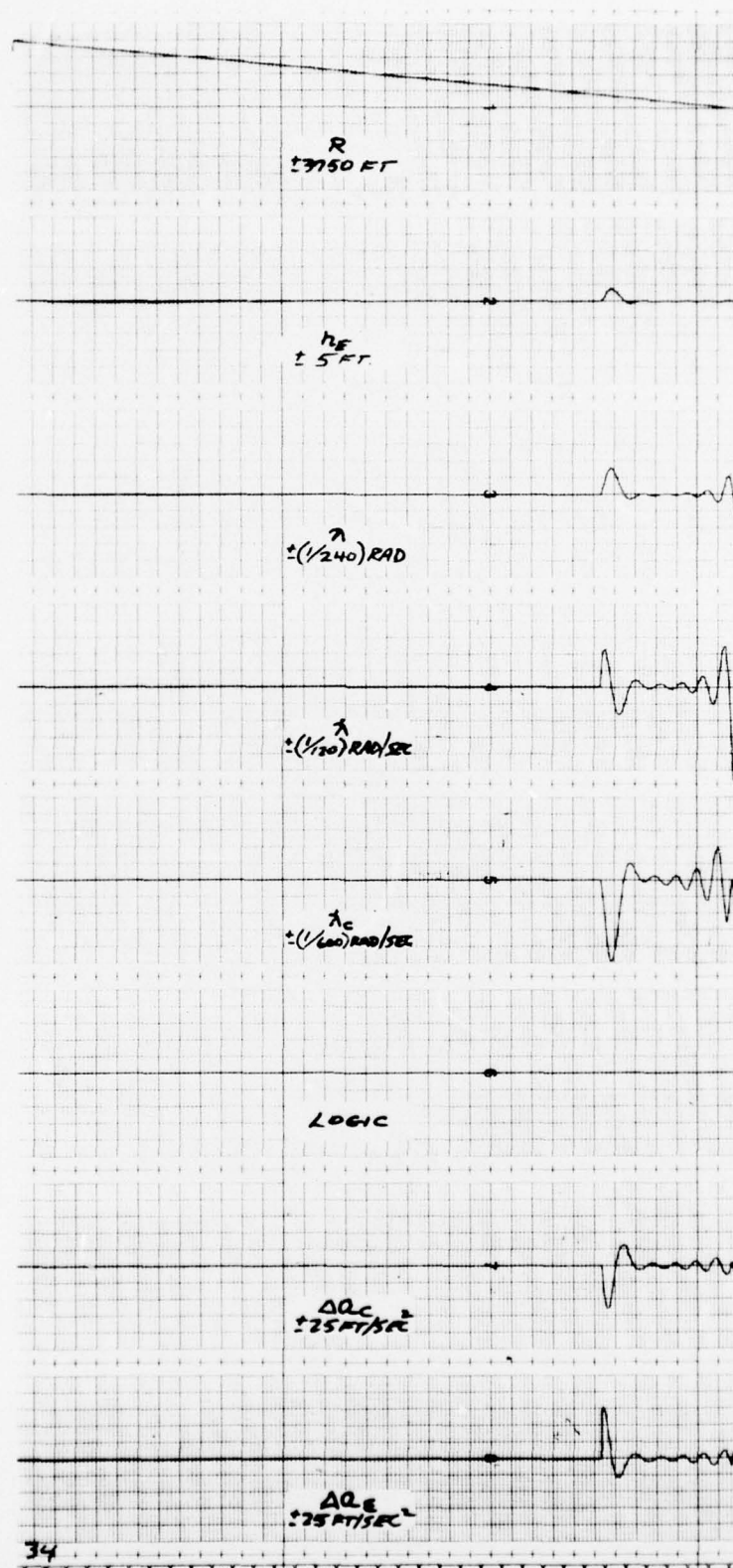


Figure 30. Coupled guidance response ( $n = 15$ ,  $R_m = 300 \text{ ft}$ ,  $\gamma_L = 8^\circ$ ,  $\gamma_F = 4^\circ$ ,  $\Delta W_G = 5 \text{ ft/sec}$ ,  $R_D = 600 \text{ ft}$ )



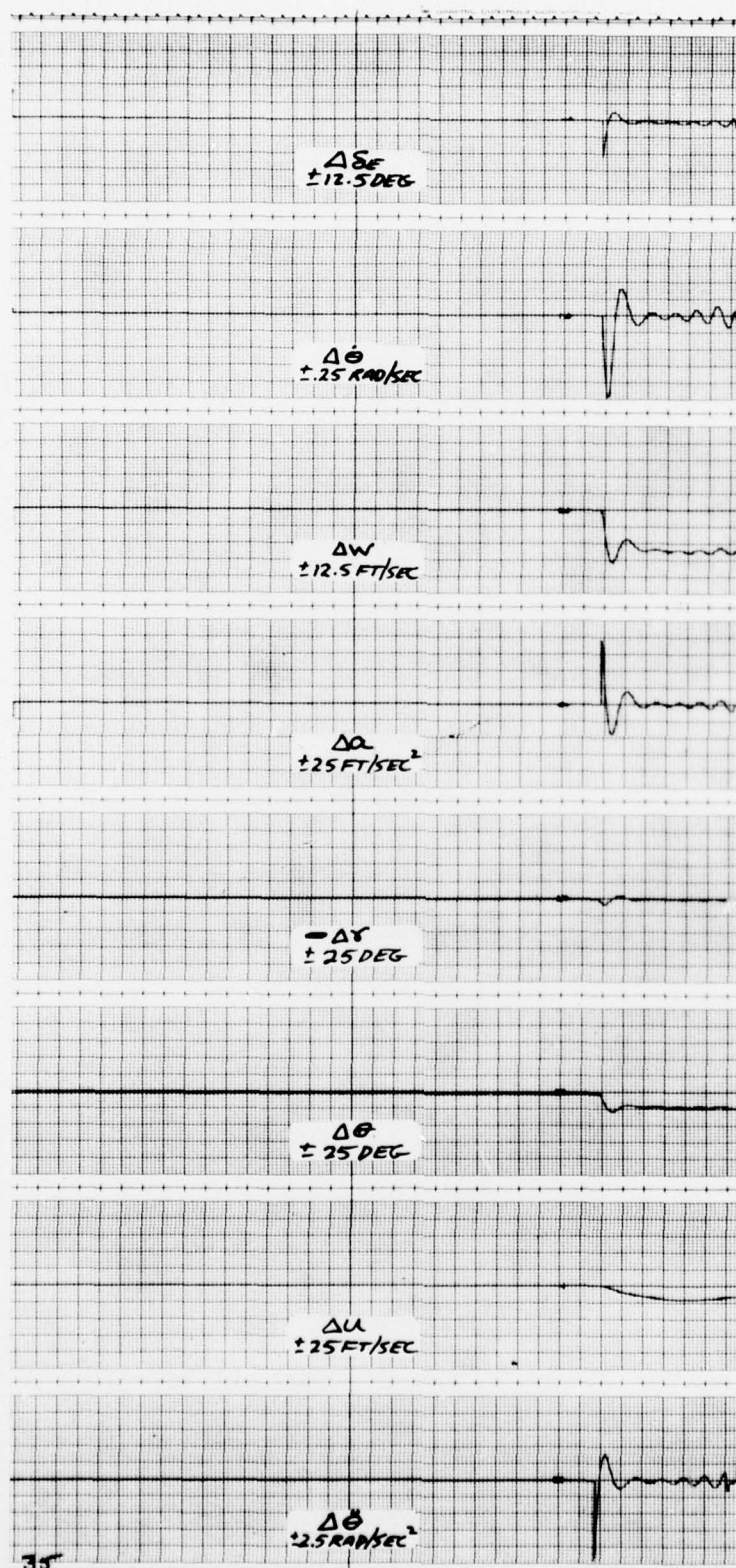


Figure 31. Coupled control response ( $n = 15$ ,  $R_m = 300 \text{ ft}$ ,  $\gamma_L = 8^\circ$ ,  $\gamma_F = 40^\circ$ ,  $\Delta W_G = 5 \text{ ft/sec}$ ,  $R_D = 600 \text{ ft}$ )



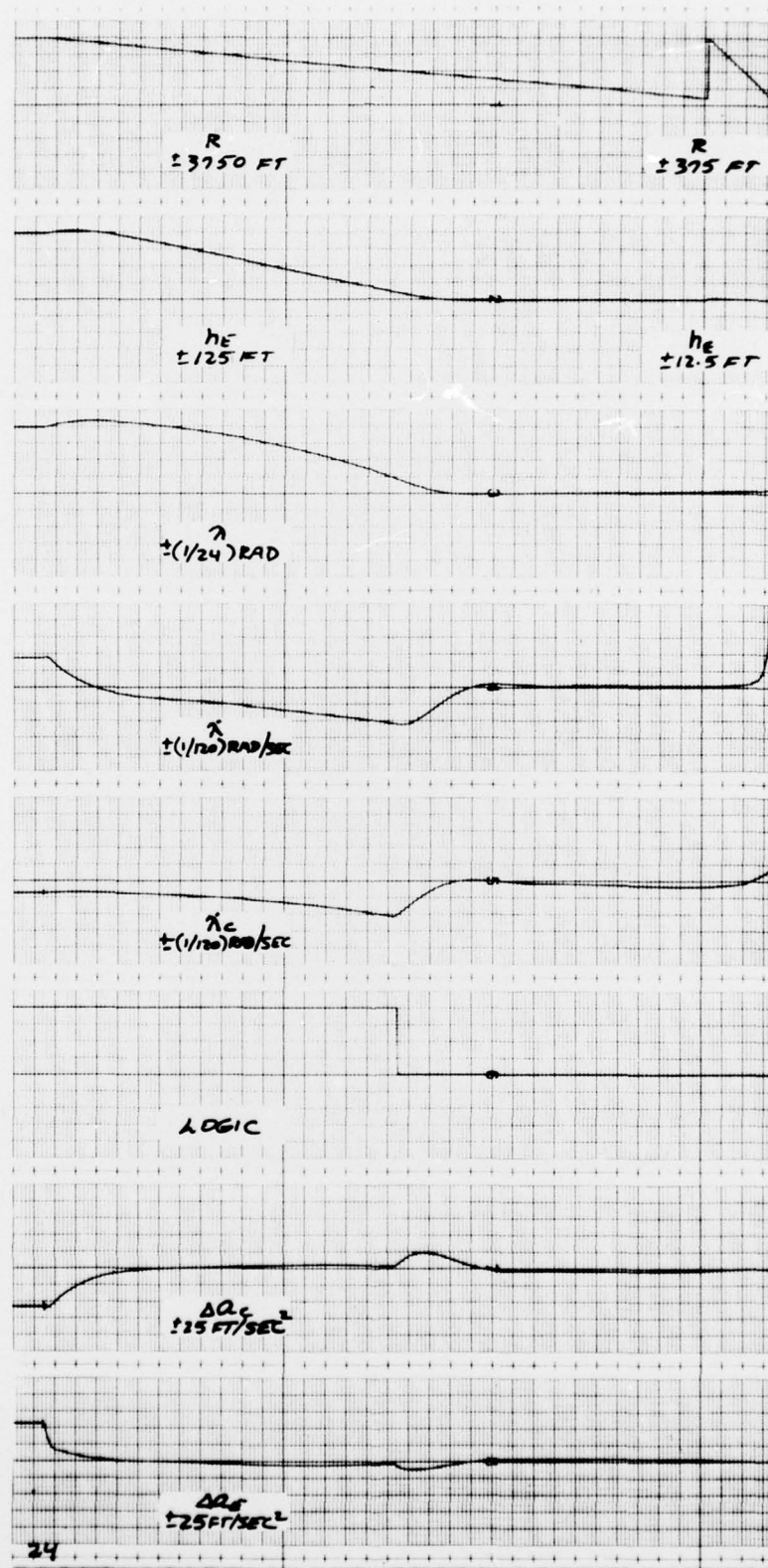


Figure 32. Coupled guidance response ( $n = 15$ ,  $R_m = 1000 \text{ ft}$ ,  $\gamma_L = 8^\circ$ ,  $\gamma_F = 40^\circ$ )

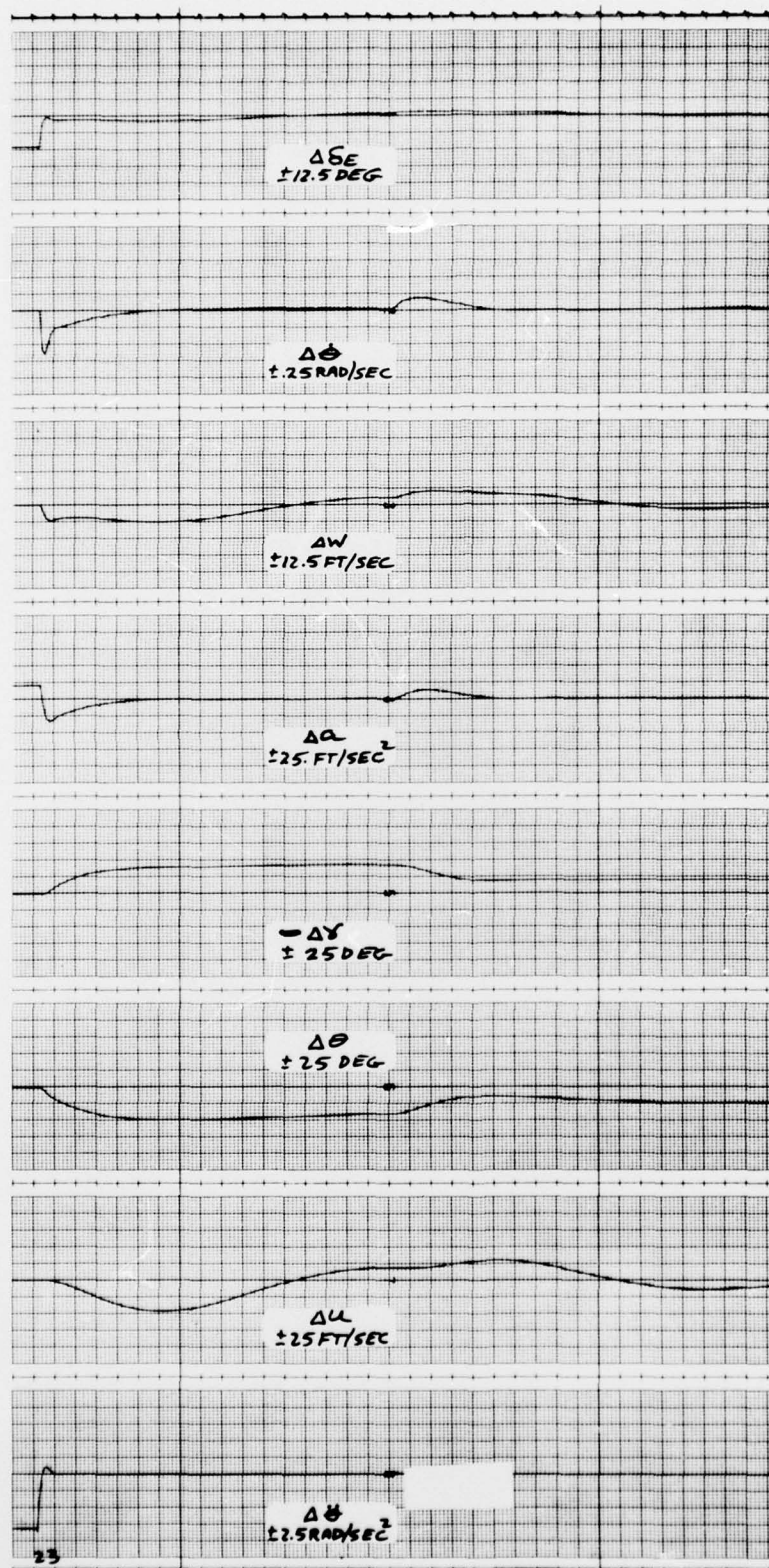


Figure 33. Coupled control response ( $n = 15$ ,  $R_m = 1000 \text{ ft}$ ,  $\gamma_L = 8^\circ$ ,  $\gamma_F = 40^\circ$ )

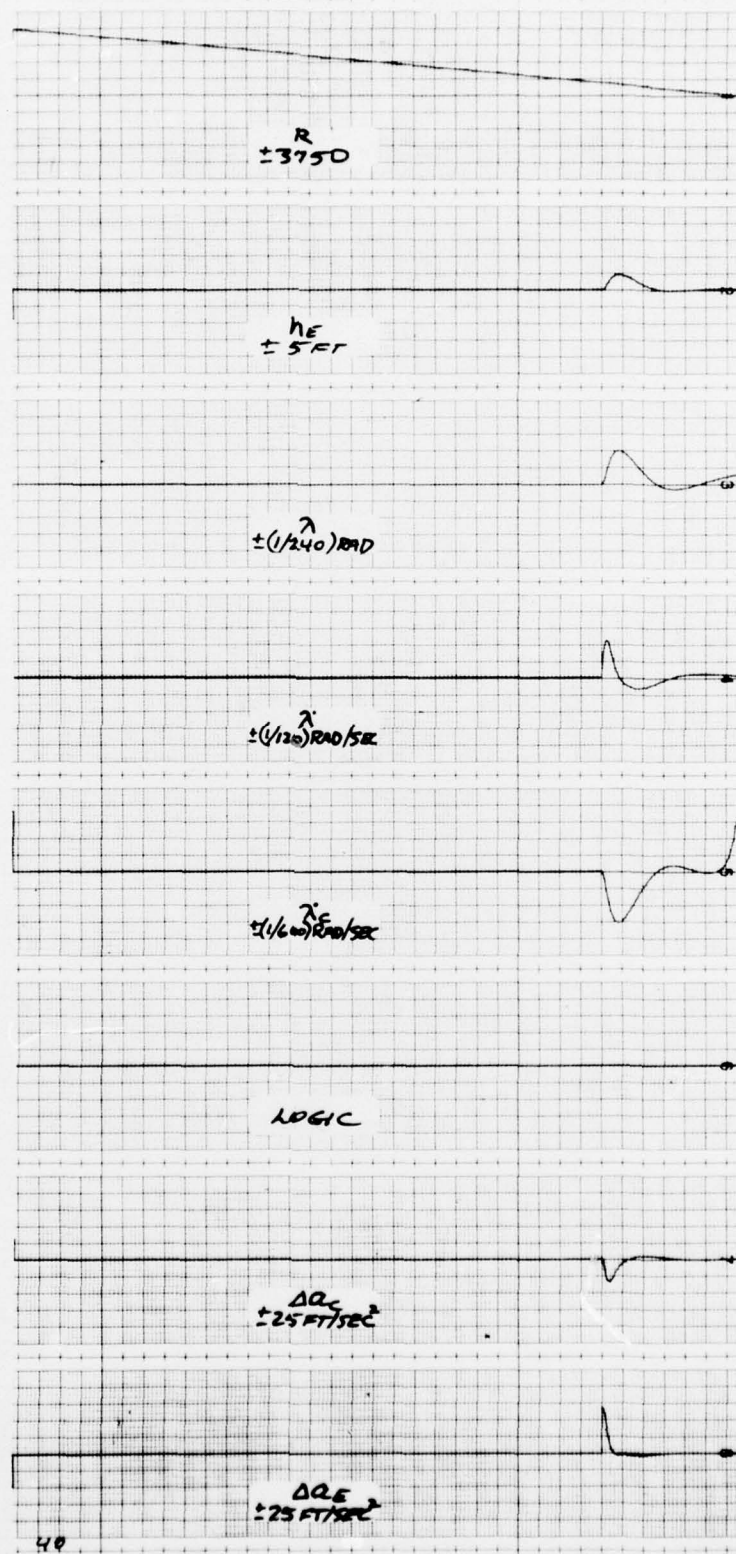


Figure 34. Coupled guidance response ( $n = 15$ ,  $R_m = 1000$ ,  $\gamma_L = 80^\circ$ ,  $\gamma_F = 40^\circ$ ,  $\Delta W_G = 5$  ft/sec,  $R_D = 600$  ft)



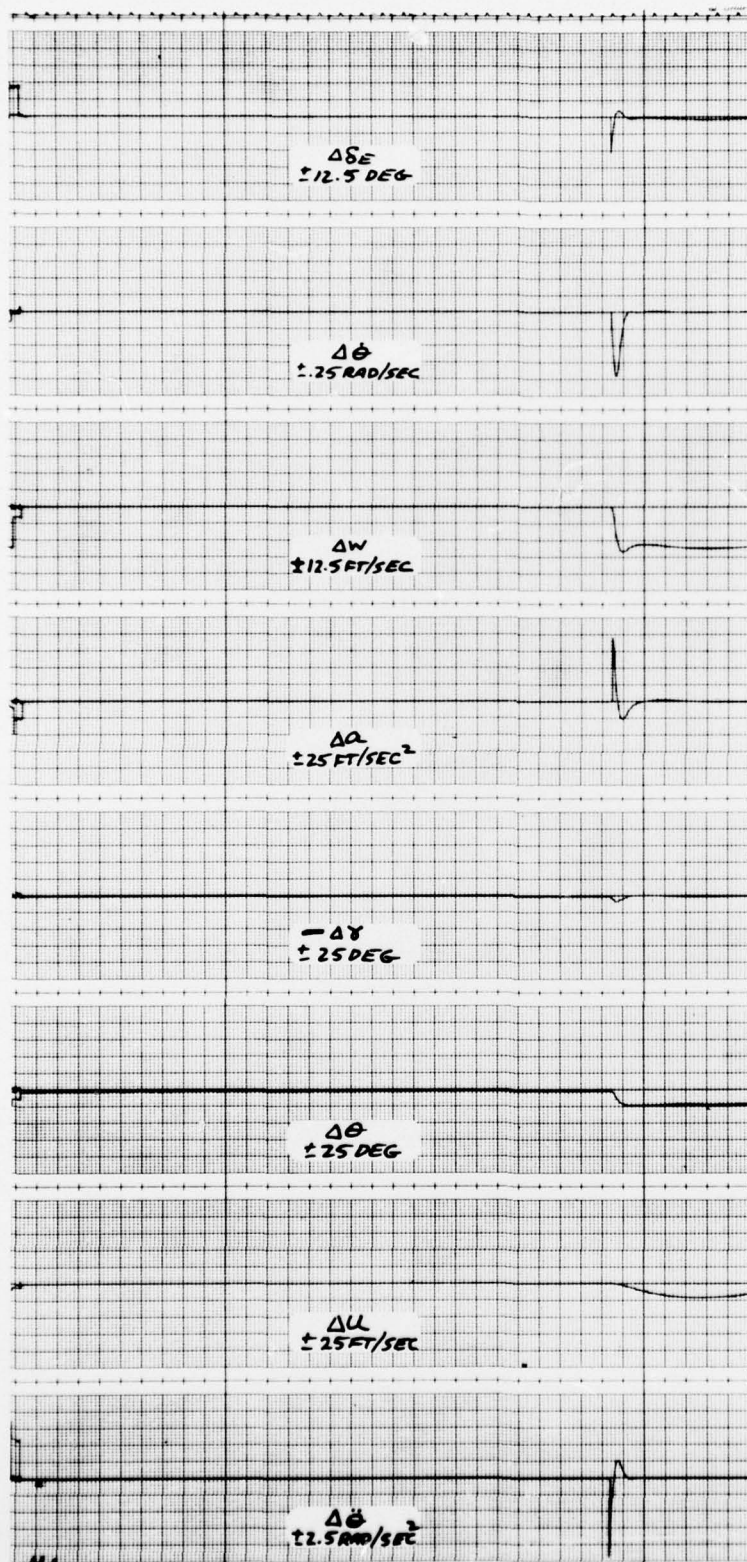


Figure 35. Coupled control response ( $n = 15$ ,  $R_m = 1000 \text{ ft}$ ,  $\gamma_L = 8^\circ$ ,  $\gamma_F = 40^\circ$ ,  $\Delta W_G = 5 \text{ ft/sec}$ ,  $R_D = 600 \text{ ft}$ )



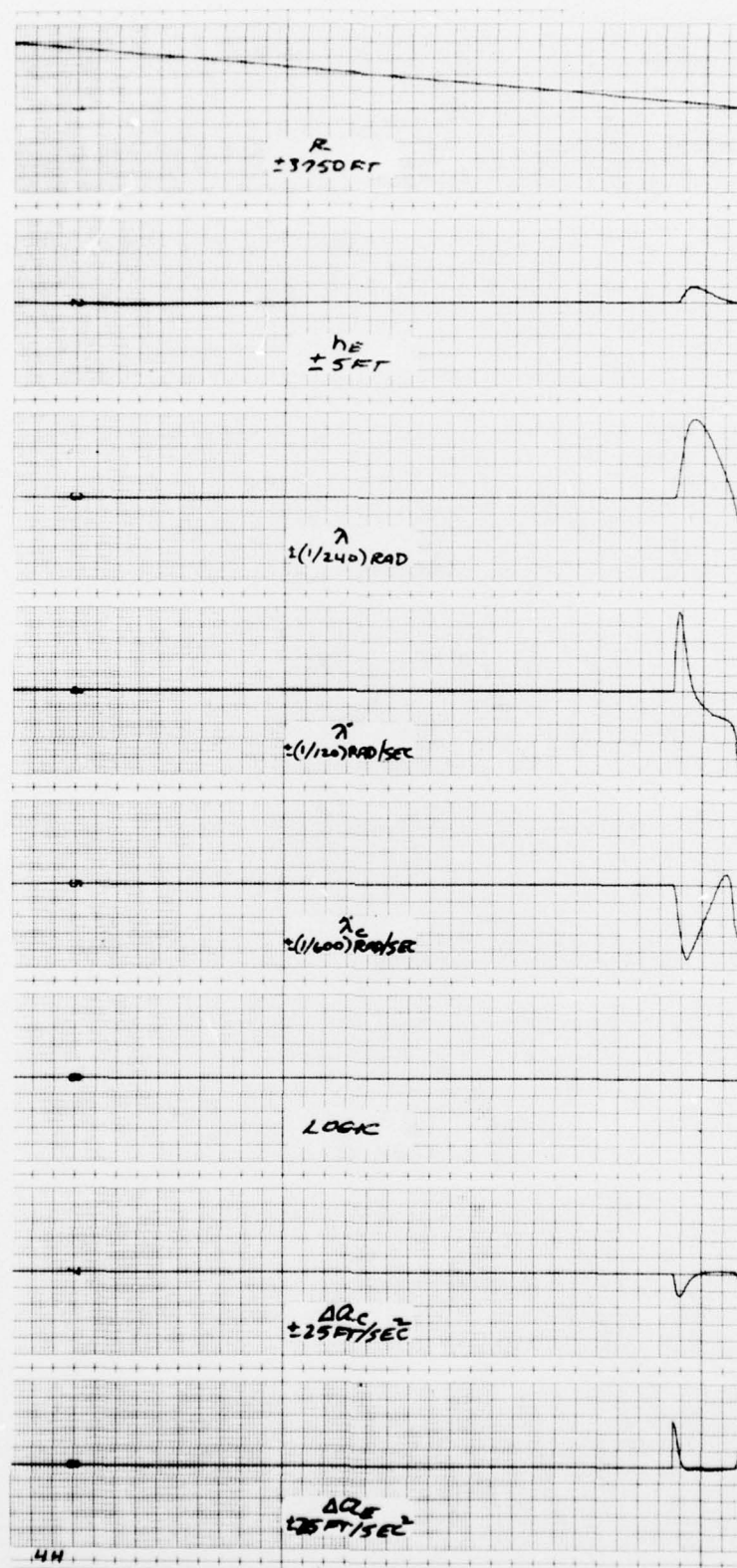


Figure 36. Coupled guidance response ( $n = 15$ ,  $R_m = 1000 \text{ ft}$ ,  $\gamma_L = 8^\circ$ ,  $\gamma_F = 40^\circ$ ,  $\Delta W_G = 5 \text{ ft/sec}$ ,  $R_D = 300 \text{ ft}$ )

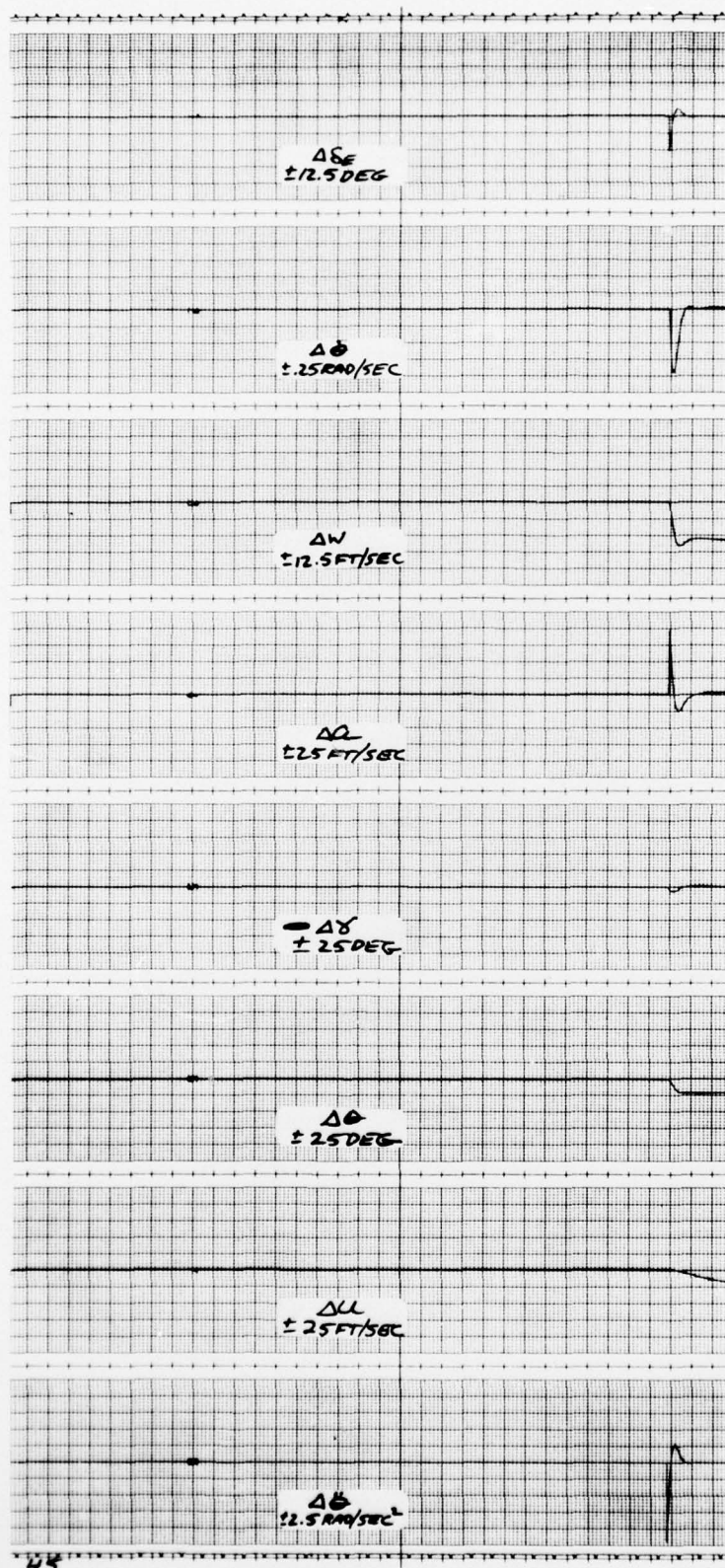


Figure 37. Coupled control response ( $n = 15$ ,  $R_m = 1000 \text{ ft}$ ,  $\gamma_L = 8^\circ$ ,  $\gamma_F = 40^\circ$ ,  $\Delta w_G = 5 \text{ ft/sec}$ ,  $R_D = 300 \text{ ft}$ )

of  $\dot{\lambda}$  will not be available. System performance (i.e., guidance law bandwidth) will therefore be influenced by one's ability to approximate  $\dot{\lambda}$  within the desired frequency region by operating upon the measured value of  $\lambda$ .

c. The near-field ( $R < R_m$ ) gust response characteristics of the guidance law were quantitatively related to the guidance parameters  $R_m$  and  $n$ , and equivalently, to the bandwidth of the guidance law. This analytic treatment, which neglected airframe dynamics, was shown to represent a worst case situation due to the gust alleviation properties of the stabilized airframe.

d. Command limiting ( $\dot{\lambda}_c$ ) within the guidance law was shown to provide an effective control over the maximum angle of descent when a measurement of flight path angle ( $\gamma$ ) is not available. The command limiting is necessary to avoid a build-up of airspeed under flight-idle engine conditions. The technique may also be applied to climbing flight to avoid conditions of insufficient power available, but this application was not considered in this simulation effort.

e. A very simple "approach autopilot" concept was suggested for the mini-RPV landing function. The autopilot relies on normal acceleration and pitching rate feedbacks to control and stabilize the short period and phugoid modes of airframe motion.

An attempt has been made within this document to carefully distinguish between the guidance function and the control function. The intent was to clearly discriminate the design objectives of each. When one considers the physical mechanization of the two functions, however, there is no associated implication that the two be clearly discernable (e.g., guidance calculations in a ground-based computer, control calculations within the air vehicle). Most certainly, the minimum required airborne computation is that associated with the control function. With the advent of microprocessor technology, however, one is inexorably drawn toward centralization of the guidance and control calculations in what should be referred to as an "Approach Guidance and Control Computer." The inputs to the computer would be communicated  $\lambda$  and  $R$  from the ground based radar or optical tracker, and the airframe normal acceleration and pitching rate from the airborne sensors. The outputs of the computer would be electrical signals to drive the control surface sensors (i.e., a "digital autopilot") for an RPV application, or to drive a flight director for the IFR, piloted application.



## APPENDIX

This appendix contains the scaled analog simulation diagrams for the air-frame, auto-pilot, and associated kinematic relationships.



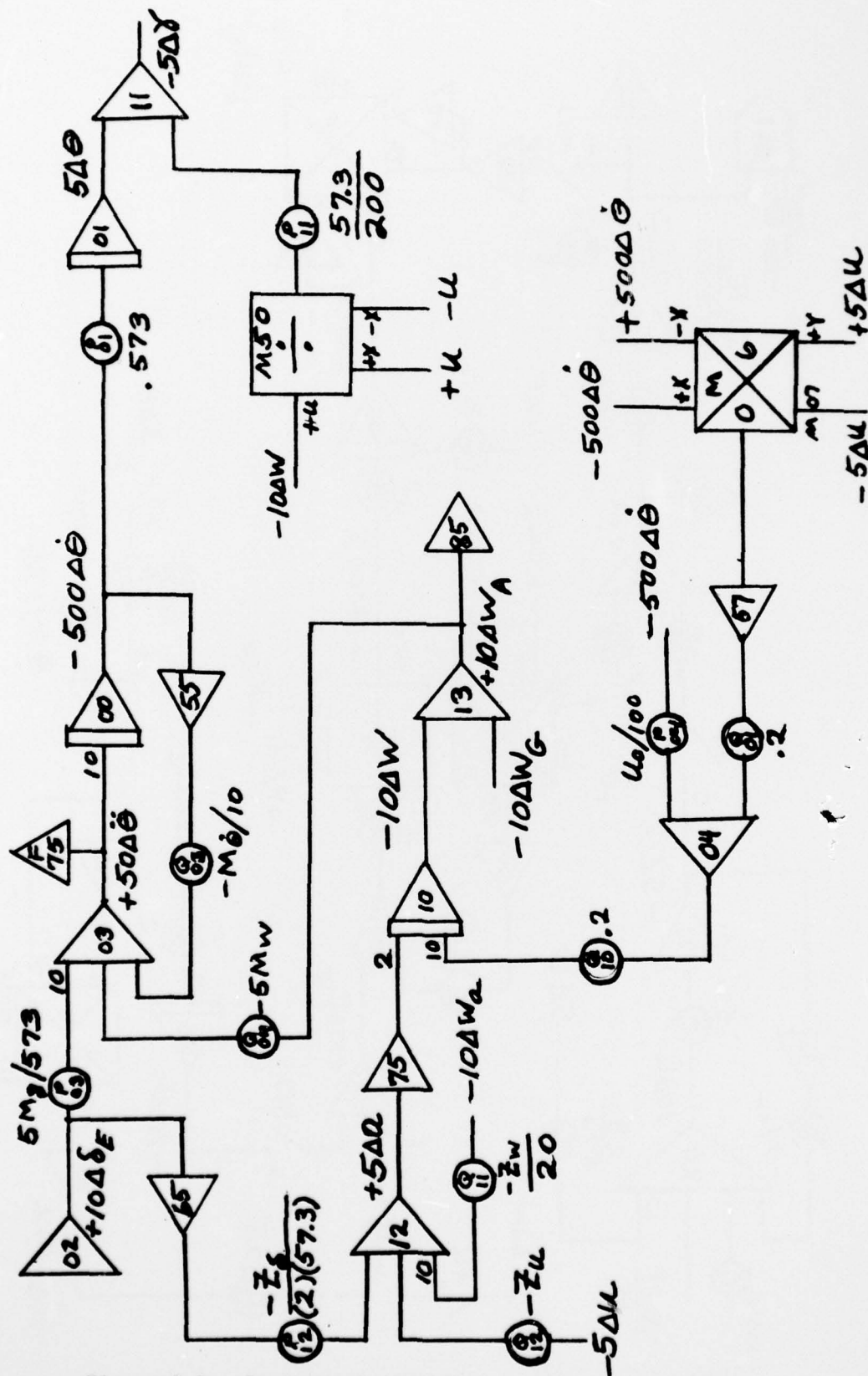
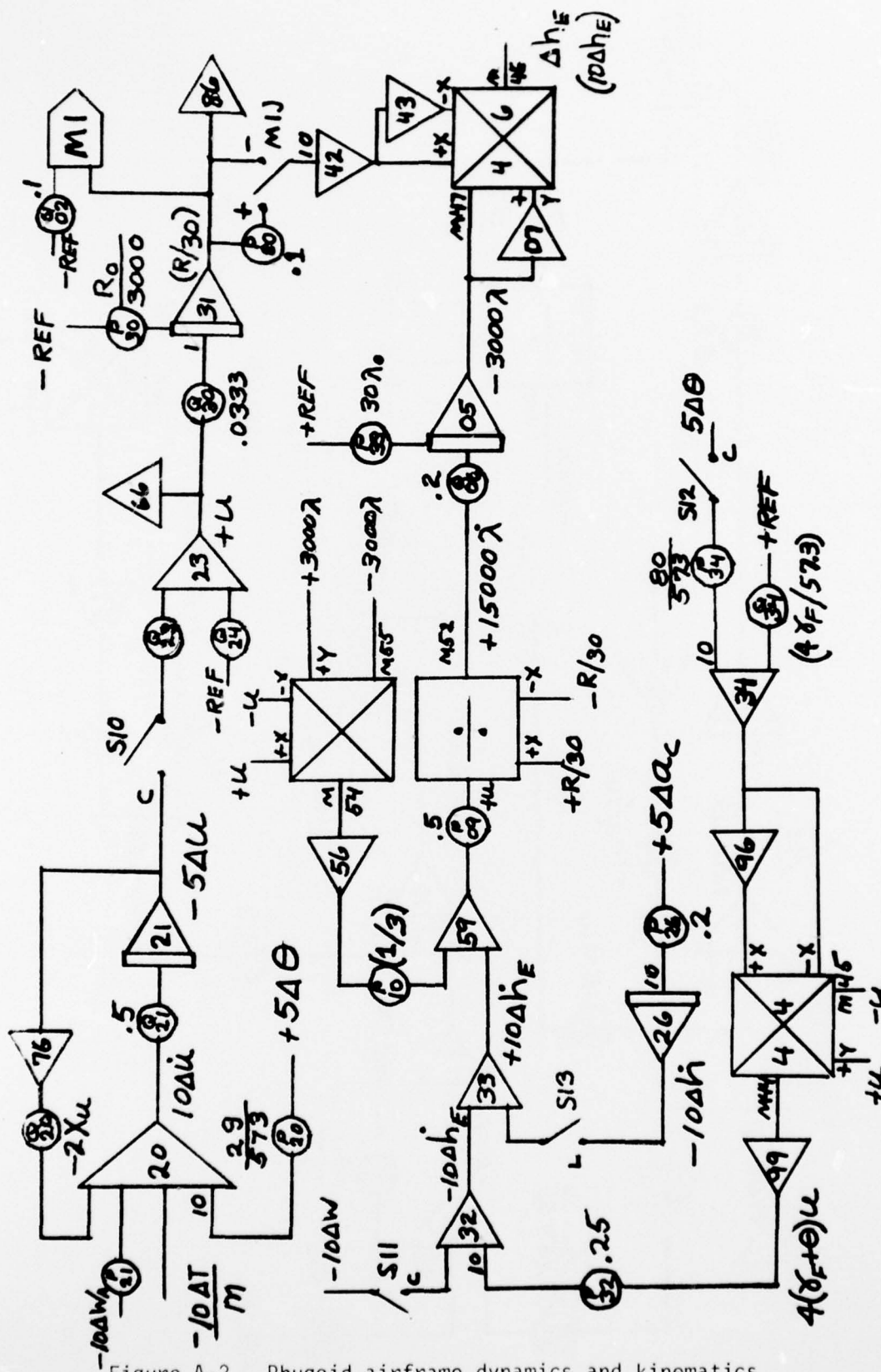
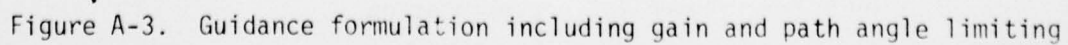
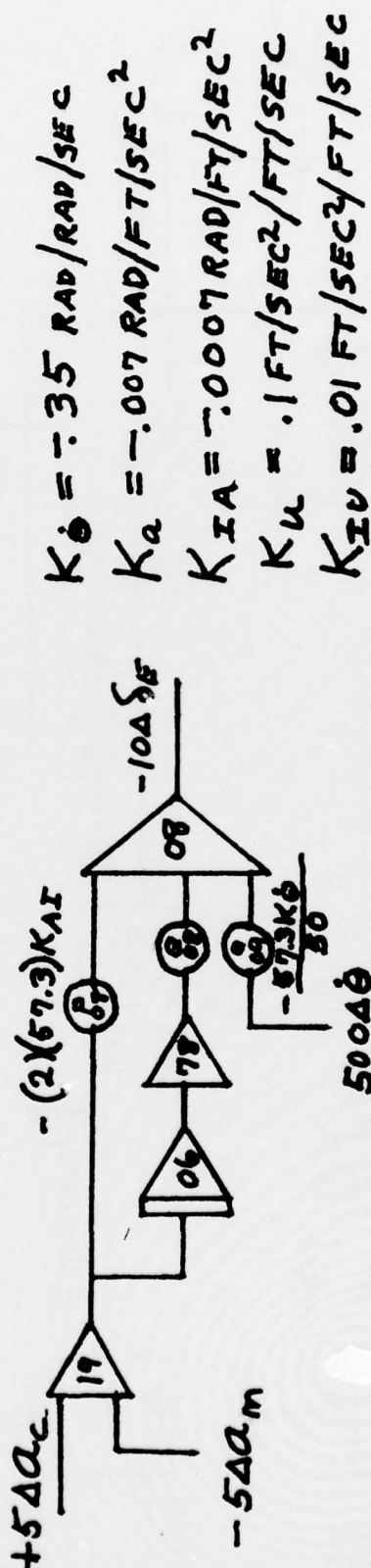
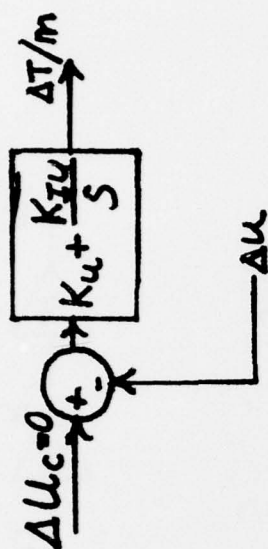
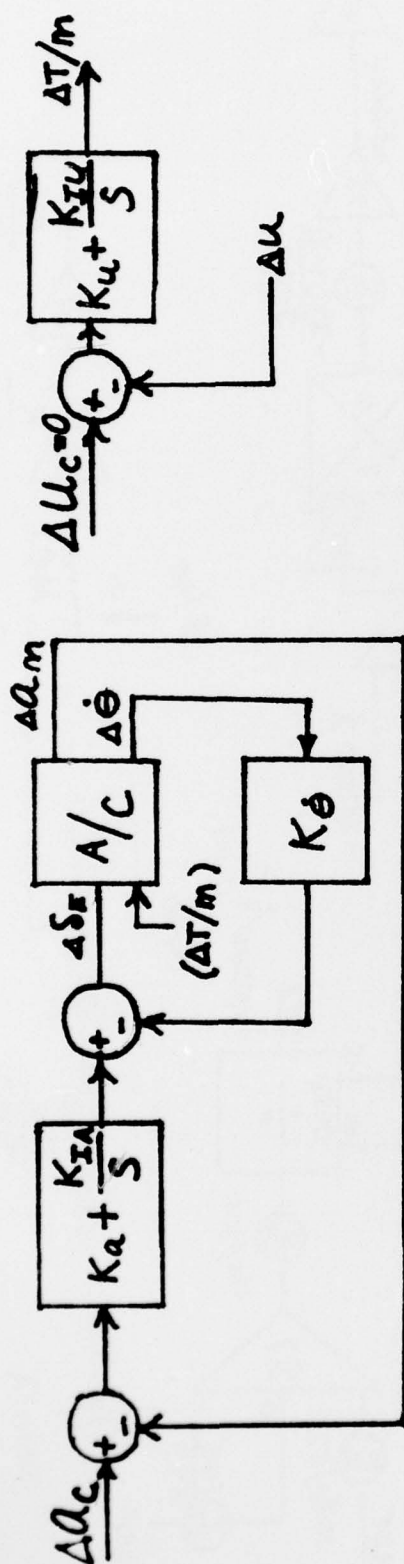


Figure A-1. Short period airframe dynamics







$$\begin{aligned}
 K_{\dot{\theta}} &= -35 \text{ RAD/RAD/SEC} \\
 K_a &= -0.007 \text{ RAD/FT/SEC}^2 \\
 K_{IA} &= 0.0007 \text{ RAD/FT/SEC}^2 \\
 K_u &= 0.1 \text{ FT/SEC}^2/\text{FT/SEC} \\
 K_{IU} &= 0.01 \text{ FT/SEC}^2/\text{FT/SEC}
 \end{aligned}$$

Figure A-4. Autopilot representation